## PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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## The National Coal Board and The Fleck Report

By C. A. ROBERTS

The Secretary of the National Coal Board explains the changes that the Board have made in their organisation following the recommendations of the Fleck Report of 1955.

ATE in 1953, the National Coal Board decided that a complete review should be made of their organisation. should be made of their organisation, and they decided to invite people with experience of large-scale undertakings to do the work. The Committee set up consisted of Dr. (now Sir) Alexander Fleck, Chairman of Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd.; H. A. Benson, a partner in the firm of accountants of Cooper Brothers; Sir William Lawther, formerly President of the National Union of Mineworkers; Sir Herbert Merrett, Chairman of Powell Duffryn Ltd.; and Sir Godfrey Mitchell, Chairman of Wimpey's Ltd., and formerly a part-time Member of the National Coal Board. The terms of reference given to the Committee were: "To consider the organisation of the National Coal Board and to make recommendations to the Board." They met for the first time in December, 1953, and appointed Dr. Fleck as their Chairman.

Early in 1954, the Chairman of the Board announced that any employee might speak or write to the Committee without reservation and with complete frankness, and that information and views put to the Committee would be treated in confidence by them. This undoubtedly helped the Committee in their task. They received written views from a large number of individuals and from organisations connected with the industry, including the National Union of Mineworkers, the British Association of Colliery Management and the two Unions representing clerical workers in the industry. also paid many visits to the Board's Divisions, Areas and collieries.

The Report of the Committee was received by the Board in January, 1955, and published in the following month.\* In this article it is impossible to summarise all of it, or to refer in detail to all the 61 recommendations. It is hoped, however, that those who are interested in management generally, and in the management of the coal industry in particular, will get hold of the Report and read it as a whole. As the Manchester Guardian put it, "their Report will become a classic of industrial management."

The Committee considered the main lines of the Board's organisation to be sound, with its eight main Divisions, and 48 Areas answering to the Divisions. They also agreed with the existing management structure whereby each Division is managed by a Board of six or more, and each Area is under the single control of an Area General Manager. They had, however, criticisms to propound and proposals to make in regard to:

- (a) The constitution of the Board itself;
- (b) General management policy;

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> \*The Report may be obtained from the National Coal Board, Hobart House, Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1. 2s. 10d. post free.

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

- (c) The Departmental organisation at Headquarters and below;
- (d) The Area management;
- (e) The level of management between Area and Colliery;
- (f) Management at colliery level.

It is proposed to deal briefly with each of these subjects and with the Board's reactions to the criticisms and proposals.

#### The Board

The National Coal Board are appointed by the Minister of Fuel and Power, and the Fleck Committee expressly directed their remarks about the constitution of the Board to him. Their most important proposal was that the Board should be "functional," that is to say, that each full-time Member, other than the Chairman and Deputy Chairman, should have one or more Departments within his special field of responsibility. This proposal was accepted by the Minister and the Board was reconstituted in February, 1955. In effect, this meant a reversion to the practice applied when the Board was created in 1946 in the sense that each Board Member other than the Chairman and Deputy Chairman was then given responsibility for a particular Department. From 1951, however, there was a movement away from this and at the time of the Fleck Report most Board Members were "nonfunctional" though each had a largely undefined supervisory rôle in relation to one or more Departments.

There has been a minor variation from the allocation of Departments suggested by the Committee, consequent on the creation, in July, 1956, of a Reconstruction Department. The allocation as it now exists is:

Production Member Production and Reconstruction Departments.

Marketing Member Marketing, and Purchasing and Stores Departments.

Finance Member Finance Department.

Industrial Relations Member Industrial Relations Department.

Staff Member Staff Department.

Scientific Member Scientific and Carbonisation Departments and the Medical Service.

The remaining Departments—the Secretary's Department and the Legal

Department—do not owe "allegiance" to any individual Board Member.

The Fleck Committee were careful to describe the relations that should exist between the functional Board Members and the Heads of Departments;

they said that:

"Each of the Departments should have an executive Head at Headquarters, who would be responsible for its day-to-day management. It would be the Board Member's duty to see that, over the whole field of the Department's work, a clear and comprehensive policy was established, and that the policy was reviewed from time to time in the light of changed needs and circumstances. And he would be responsible on the cums for in negotiation other the comments.

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for ensuring that the Department was properly organised and staffed for carrying out its functions, and would watch the Department's progress."

In practice, no great difficulty has been found in regulating the relationship on these lines. In some fields, the Board Members have by force of circumstances to exercise a greater degree of detailed control than in others; for instance, in Industrial Relations, the Board Member often conducts negotiations with the Unions himself and therefore has to be informed in detail of the day-to-day matters that may give rise to negotiations. At the other extreme, the Finance Member has no need to concern himself with the day-to-day operations of the Finance Department nor has the Scientific Member with those of the Medical Service.

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#### General Management Policy

The main emphasis of the Report was laid on general management policy. In the words of the Committee, "we are not satisfied that policies and decisions emanating from the Board's Headquarters are being properly carried out in the Divisions and Areas." Several reasons were advanced for this failing. One was that some of those who had entered the Board's service on nationalisation had found it difficult to adjust themselves to conditions within the new organisation. Another was that "inertia, habit, other preoccupations or lack of staff" had prevented Divisions and Areas from taking action on agreed policies.

But the Committee felt that the main reason for the failing was the unwillingness of the National Coal Board themselves to insist on their policies being carried out. "From the outset," said the Report, "the Board have tried to control their subordinate formations with a very light touch. Some Divisions have taken advantage of this. The National Board, having adopted a policy, have too often been half-hearted in holding to it when Divisions have not liked the policy or have been slow in carrying it out."

The report provided several illustrations for this criticism. It was pointed out, for example, that the Board had mentioned the possibilities of standard costing in their Annual Reports for 1947 and 1948, and had, in 1952, come out clearly in favour of the system. Yet by the beginning of 1955, standard costs were only being used at about 60 out of 900 collieries. The Committee appreciated that there might be many reasons for the long delay in implementing the Board's policy, but their view was that these were difficulties to be surmounted, not excuses for failing to make progress.

The criticism was, in fact, largely a criticism of the Board's interpretation of decentralisation, since the Committee felt that the Board were right in decentralising management as far as reasonably possible, but wrong in failing to enforce policy decisions for fear of interfering with day-to-day management. In the words of the Report:

"Decentralisation means that each level of management specifies clearly the powers which may be exercised by the level below it. Having done so, it leaves the lower formation free to exercise these powers. But each level of management must see that the policies which it lays down are punctually and effectively carried out by the level of management below it. This should be done, not by interference in detailed day-to-day matters, but by modern management techniques or approved programmes followed by periodic reports and reviews of progress and by physical inspections. The Board appear to have assumed that decentralisation means that they should not, or need not, impose their will on Divisions and Areas. We do not agree with this policy."

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This may not be thought to be a very startling pronouncement, but it must be viewed against the background of previous criticism from various quarters that the management of affairs was unduly centralised. It was an effective answer to those who maintained that the Board should "keep off the grass" as much as possible and leave most things to local managements.

The guidance given on management policy has had a marked effect on the Board's decisions and actions since the date of the Report. Great pains have been taken to see that policy generally and on particular issues is set down clearly and in sufficient detail. The technique of control by means of forecasts and budgets has been substantially developed. On 5th July, 1955, a new General Directive was issued in place of the one issued in 1953. A copy of the Directive is included as an Appendix to this article, but the paragraph relevant to policy control (para. 31) is as follows:

"Policy decisions of the Board must be properly and promptly carried out, and control must be firm: in this all levels of management must play their part. Policies must be expressed fully, specifically and, where necessary, in detail. Each level of management must avoid interfering in the day-to-day work of the level of management below it, but should exercise control by means of modern management techniques, including the use of approved programmes, followed by periodical reports and reviews of progress."

One of the questions that was much canvassed within the Board prior to the Fleck Report concerned the authority and status of the Heads of Departments at Headquarters in relation to their counterparts at Divisional level, most of whom are, of course, Members of the Divisional Boards and so part of the management at that level. One view was that the functional channel should be used for exercising direction and control. The other view was that, although there had to be functional specialists at each of the main levels of management, those specialists should only be advisory and should only be approached by the lower formation when the need for their advice was felt.

The Report expressed the firm view that the Heads of Departments should be, and be regarded as, the leaders in their respective fields. The Board have given effect to this view in their General Directive in the following words:

"At each level of management the functional Heads must give an effective lead in departmental matters to the functional Heads at the level of management below. The senior man's views in his departmental field will normally be accepted by the functional Head at the level next below him" (para. 9).

This decision has had the effect of reinforcing the control now exercised

by the Board and by their Heads of Departments and has, at the same time, resulted in firmer control by Divisions over their Areas.

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#### The Departmental Organisation

The Fleck Committee's main criticisms on this score were directed to the organisation of the Departments dealing with personnel. There were three of these at Headquarters: Labour Relations, which dealt with the wages and conditions of service of industrial employees and their placing in the industry; Manpower and Welfare, which dealt with the recruitment, training, welfare and education of industrial (and the lower ranks of non-industrial) employees; and Establishments, which dealt with the recruitment, placing, and terms and conditions of service of non-industrial employees. Moreover, responsibility for staff and miners' pensions, workmen's compensation and other matters related to industrial injuries lay with the Establishments (Finance) Branch of the Secretary's Department.

At Division, there was a single Labour Department under the Divisional Labour Director. This Department was responsible for the functions which at Headquarters were carried out by the Labour Relations Department and the Manpower and Welfare Department. The work done at Headquarters by the Establishments Department and the Establishments (Finance) Branch came under the Divisional Secretary, who was not, of course, a member of the Divisional Board.

In the Areas the pattern varied. In some there was one Area Labour Officer discharging all labour functions. In others there was also an officer responsible for education, training and welfare. The Establishments work came under the Area Administrative Officer.

The Committee considered that responsibility at Headquarters for the personnel functions was too diffuse. At Division, they found less diffusion of responsibility, but considered that the arrangements were nevertheless much less satisfactory than at Headquarters. They were particularly concerned that at Division the responsibility for the training of most staff came under the Divisional Labour Director whose main preoccupation was inevitably with wages and conditions of employment. And, of course, the same problem existed at Area level if there was a single Labour Department.

The whole emphasis of this section of their Report is on the Board's need for better management:

"At every level of the Board's organisation, and in most Departments, there is a serious shortage of able people equipped with the right qualifications and experience,"

and they concluded that the Board's staff problem would not be solved unless there was a comprehensive policy for staff, including in particular a long-term programme of recruitment and training.

The Committee would fain have recommended the establishment of one Personnel Department, but they considered that to set up such a Department to deal with all the immense and pressing human problems of the industry would have created a series of posts with very wide and heavy duties. As they felt that the industry could not hope yet to fill such posts adequately, they recommended that the personnel functions should be split between

two new Departments, entitled Industrial Relations and Staff, and that they should respectively look after industrial and non-industrial employees.

The Board accepted these recommendations and the two new Departments have been set up. The only difficulty concerned the Overmen, Deputies and Shotfirers, the N.C.Os. of the industry, who are part of management and who the Fleck Committee recommended should be looked after by the Staff Department. However, for reasons of Union representation and because Deputies and Shotfirers are covered by single Agreements negotiated in the past, it would have been difficult at once to place Overmen and Deputies with the Staff Department and Shotfirers with Industrial Relations. Contrary to the advice of the Fleck Committee, these underofficials have, therefore, for the time being, been left with Industrial Relations, though their education is a matter for the Staff Department.

The Fleck Committee also advocated the creation of a new Department to look after Purchasing, which was formerly part of the Production Department's province. They pointed out that the Board spend more than £150 million a year on the purchase of plant and stores and that the efficiency with which the work is done has a great effect on the Board's finances. The new Department has been set up and although it had to be built up almost from scratch, it is already showing its usefulness in more orderly and economic purchasing, in the field of contracts, and in improving store-holding and

stock control at Areas and collieries.

The Committee commented on the heavy responsibilities carried by the Production Department, but did not go so far as to recommend that a separate Department should be set up to deal with the major capital projects which form such an important part of the industry's current activities. Events have shown, however, that this is necessary, and a Reconstruction Department was set up a few months ago at Headquarters. It is not reproduced at Divisional level save in the Scottish Division where the amount of reconstruction to be done is exceptionally heavy. The Reconstruction Director in the Scottish Division is, of course, a member of the Divisional Board, like the Production Director.

The Committee were also critical of the organisation of the Board's carbonisation activities. Their view was that the Board were not staffed or organised to achieve their declared policy of fostering and developing their carbonisation interests. They recommended that the Carbonisation Department should be strengthened at Headquarters in order to give it the strength and influence to ensure that policy was effectively implemented, and that an expert in carbonisation should be appointed to the Board of each of the four main Carbonisation Divisions.

The Board decided to make appointments only to the Durham and North Eastern Divisional Boards, for the present, but the Department is being strengthened in all four Divisions and also at Headquarters, especially on the technical side.

#### Area Management

While the Committee agreed that it was right for each Area to be under the control of an Area General Manager, they said that in some Areas, at any rate, far too many Area officials were reporting directly to him; in a app as a star Ger the Ma the Ass

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few cases 12 or more did so. They therefore recommended that a new post should be created in all Areas, that of Assistant Area General Manager, to whom would report some of the Departmental heads and who would be in charge of the Area in the General Manager's absence. The Board have accepted this proposal, and Assistant General Managers have been appointed in well over half the Areas. The other Areas will have them as and when men of the right attainments and calibre become available. A standard pattern of Area organisation has been adopted: the Assistant General Manager supervises the Area Staff Manager, the Chief Scientist, the Medical Officer, the Estates Manager and the Purchasing and Stores Manager. This leaves the Production Manager, the Chief Accountant, the Industrial Relations Officer and the Marketing Manager (with the Assistant General Manager) reporting direct to the General Manager.

Another point made by the Committee was that, in all Areas where the planning problems are large or difficult, the Area Production Manager should have one Deputy dealing with day-to-day operations and one Deputy dealing with planning. This arrangement already existed in some Areas; it now exists in all but the smallest. It has the great advantage that proper attention is devoted to the forward planning of developments which is of crucial importance in an extractive industry. In some Areas it has been found necessary to appoint a third Deputy to deal specifically with Reconstruction schemes.

The Committee thought that, in the main, the powers delegated by Divisional Boards to Area General Managers were satisfactory, but they were critical in one respect in that they thought that some Area General Managers had excessive powers in regard to capital expenditure on colliery projects. (In the Areas in question, the General Managers had had authority to sanction expenditure of as much as £100,000 on a single colliery project without reference to Division.) They suggested that this delegated authority should be limited to £50,000. In the event, the Board decided that Area General Managers in two Divisions should be authorised to approve expenditure of up to £50,000 on a single project, but that in other Areas (with three exceptions, where the limit was fixed at £15,000) this authority should be £25,000.

#### The Level of Management between Area and Colliery

The Fleck Committee quite rightly considered that major reorganisation was needed at the level of management between the Area and the Colliery. Some Areas consist of 40 collieries, others of no more than 12 or so big ones. The Board had not laid down any pattern of organisation below Area, and although Sub-Areas existed in some Areas, in others there was no grouping of the units. The Committee recommended (and the Board have accepted the recommendation) that the collieries should be formed into Groups, each under a Group Manager who should be regarded as in the line of management for most purposes. In all, 212 Groups have been created, many of them the old Sub-Areas under a new name. The number of collieries in each Group, of course, varies, but none have less than two or, where the pits are small, more than 13. The Board's new General Directive defines the authority of Group Managers as follows:

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

"The Group Manager will be accountable to the Area General Manager in all matters which substantially affect the efficient operation of the Group" (para. 28).

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Each Group Manager has a small staff, but it is not the Board's intention that there should be at any Group a comprehensive Departmental organisation such as there must be at Area Headquarters.

#### Management at Colliery Level

The Fleck Committee did not deal in detail with Colliery management; indeed, they regarded this as outside their terms of reference, but they did recommend the appointment of Colliery Personnel and Administrative Officers so as to leave Colliery Managers with more time to devote to the job of getting coal. The Board have not yet gone far to implement this recommendation, mainly because they had put in hand, before the Fleck Committee reported, a comprehensive examination of Colliery management, and it was felt to be desirable not to make changes of importance before the examination was completed. The Report of the team charged with this work has now been produced, and is being considered.

#### General

From what has been said above, it will be seen that the Board have not only accepted the recommendations of the Fleck Committee, but have taken action to implement them. The results are not yet to be seen in increased output of coal or in reduced costs. But it is fair to say that steps have been taken in consequence of the Report which will have their effect in greater efficiency. The whole tone of management has improved; questions that have agitated the minds of senior officials for years have been authoritatively answered; the General Directive of 1955 can serve as a charter for management for many years to come. The Board were indeed fortunate in finding men of the calibre of the members of the Fleck Committee to review their organisation. Their Report will long serve as a guiding light to the management of an industry whose problems are singularly complex and whose importance in the economic life of the nation is paramount.

#### APPENDIX

The following General Directive\* was sent to all Divisional Chairmen and Heads of Departments at Headquarters on the 5th July, 1955. In his covering letter the late Sir Hubert Houldsworth, then Chairman of the Board, said:

" The National Coal Board have today issued a new general Directive, to be observed by all members of their staff. It is to be widely circulated within the Board's organisation, and all members of the staff with the rank of Under-manager or equivalent and above are to have a copy. The Directive is to be accompanied by this letter and any separate letter which Divisional Chairmen may wish to send.

"The Directive must be carried out with common sense, not legalistically.

<sup>\*</sup>As printed on pages 9-14 the Directive incorporates amendments approved by the Board on 20th November, 1956, consequent upon the creation of Reconstruction Department.

Should any doubt of its interpretation arise, it should be referred to the Secretary to the National Coal Board through the usual channels.

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"The provisions in the Directive are, for the most part, in terms of the Board's organisation for managing the collieries. But the principles of the Directive hold good also for Carbonisation and other ancillary activities and are to be applied to them."

1. This Directive is to be observed by all Members of the Board's staff.\*

#### GENERAL

- The levels of management through which the National Coal Board discharge their responsibility for the industry are—Headquarters, Division, Area, Group and Colliery.
- 3. The authorities in charge at the levels of management below Head-quarters are—the Divisional Boards, the Area General Managers, the Group Managers and the Colliery Managers. The authorities are responsible for the general management, within the framework of the National Coal Board's policies, of their Division, Area, Group or Colliery as the case may be. Divisional Boards, Area General Managers and Group Managers must control and co-ordinate the work of subordinate authorities, must help, guide and stimulate them, and must hold them to account.
- 4. Policy decisions of the National Board will continue to be communicated to Divisions by the Chairman, Deputy Chairman or Secretary of the Board: detailed instructions about implementation may be issued at the same time through departmental channels (see paragraph 11 below). Policy decisions of the National Board and the Divisional Board will be communicated to Area General Managers by the Divisional Chairman, Deputy Chairman or Secretary: separate instructions about implementation may be issued through departmental channels or to the Area General Managers (see paragraph 22). Policy decisions of the National Board, Divisional Board or Area General Manager, when issued from Area Headquarters, should be signed by the Area General Manager, or on the Area General Manager's behalf by the Assistant Area General Manager or Area Secretary.
- 5. In discharging their responsibilities the authorities must make full use of the departmental staffs. The authorities are responsible for ensuring proper consultation and co-operation between the departments at their level of management.
  - 6. The following are the departments:

Production. Scientific.

Marketing. The Medical Service.

Carbonisation. Finance

Purchasing and Stores. Reconstruction. Industrial Relations. Secretary's.

Staff. Legal.

\*To staff engaged in the management of the Board's opencast activities this Directive is issued mainly for information. They are required, however, to observe the contents of paragraphs 31 to 33.

Not all of the twelve departments are represented at every level of management.

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- 7. The responsibilities of each Head of department at the various levels of management are:
- (a) To advise on the framing of policy in his field.
- (b) To set in motion the execution of policies in his field.
- (c) To co-ordinate the specialist work of his department, not only at his own level, but also at the next level of management below him.
- (d) To advise, guide and stimulate the department at his own level and at all levels of management below him.
- (e) To keep himself informed about the work of his department, and to satisfy himself that the policy in his field is being carried out punctually and efficiently both at his own level and at all levels of management below him.
- 8. On matters of established policy each Head of department at Head-quarters is empowered by the Board to issue to the functional Head at Division instructions on the implementation of such policies. Divisional Boards will delegate corresponding powers to their functional Heads. Area General Managers will delegate to functional Heads at Area powers to issue, on matters of established policy, instructions to Group Managers, or, if the particular matter is one for which Group Managers are not responsible (see paragraph 29 below), to Colliery Managers. If and when functional Heads at Area issue instructions direct to a Colliery Manager, they must inform the Group Manager.
- 9. At each level of management the functional Heads must give an effective lead in departmental matters to the functional Heads at the level of management below. The senior man's views in his departmental field will normally be accepted by the functional Head at the level next below him. The views of senior officials assisting each functional Head will normally be accepted by the corresponding officials at the next level below, in so far as the man at the higher level is acting in accordance with powers delegated to him by his functional Head.
- 10. On matters of policy, and on many purely departmental matters, there must be frequent and full consultation between levels, particularly when new policies not yet adopted are under discussion. Full use will be made of the National Advisory Committee and the Divisional Advisory Committees for purposes of consultation on policy.
- 11. Instructions issued by a functional Head should be addressed to the functional Head at the level of management next below, but a copy must go direct to the authority in the line of command at the next level below so that the authority may be kept informed. These copies should be sent to the Divisional Secretary or to the Area Secretary as the case may be. Divisional Boards will establish a system under which their functional Heads consult as necessary with them, or with their Divisional Chairman or Deputy

Chairman, before taking action on instructions issued departmentally. Area General Managers will establish a system under which functional Heads at Area consult as necessary with the Area General Manager or Assistant Area General Manager before taking action on instructions which are issued departmentally.\*

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- 12. Where a functional Head feels that the implementation of an established policy is falling short of what is required, he will, unless he can otherwise secure that matters are put right, bring his view to the notice of the authority at his level, viz., the National Board, the Divisional Board or the Area General Manager as the case may be.
- 13. Internal audit is organised as a national service, attached to Finance Department. The Chief Internal Auditor will issue instructions on audit work and programmes. Divisional Chief Internal Auditors will be responsible to the Chief Internal Auditor for the execution of their duties, but will be attached to and will normally report to Divisional Finance Directors. Area Internal Auditors will be responsible to Divisional Chief Internal Auditors, but will be attached to and will normally report to Area General Managers.
- 14. The responsibility for implementing the Board's marketing policies rests with the Director-General of Marketing. The selling of coal on the inland market, other than coal supplied from colliery landsales, is the function of the Regional Sales Organisation under the Director-General of Marketing. In addition to his other duties, each Divisional Marketing Director is responsible for maintaining liaison between his Divisional Board and the Regional Sales Organisation and for keeping his Divisional Board fully informed on marketing matters generally. The Area Marketing Manager (or, where there is no Area Marketing Manager, the staff carrying out the marketing functions for the Area) will work under the instructions of the Divisional Marketing Director and will be responsible for keeping the Area General Manager and other officials in the Area informed and advised on all marketing matters affecting the management of the Area. He will also be responsible for keeping the Divisional Marketing Director and the Regional Sales Organisation fully informed of the views of the Area management.

#### DIVISIONAL HEADQUARTERS

#### (a) Responsibilities of the Members of Divisional Boards

15. The Members of each Divisional Board are jointly responsible to the National Board for the general management of the National Board's business

\*The provisions in paragraph 11 will not usually be appropriate in marketing matters. The National Board will inform Divisional Boards of all important policy decisions they take in the marketing field, and Divisional Boards should see that Area General Managers are also informed as necessary of such decisions. The responsibility for implementing the Board's marketing policies rests with the Director-General of Marketing (see paragraph 14) and it will be for him and for Divisional Marketing Directors and Area Marketing Managers to see that Divisional Boards and Area General Managers are informed of, and are consulted about, any instructions issued in marketing matters, which may affect the general management of the Division or Area.

within the boundaries of their Division. (Divisional Boards are not, however, responsible for such opencast activities or Headquarters-controlled activities as are carried on within their Division.) The powers and responsibilities of members of Divisional Boards, other than the Chairman, are also governed by the provisions in paragraphs 7 to 14 above.

#### (b) Organisation of Divisional Headquarters

- 16. All the functions which are represented at Divisional Headquarters must be organised departmentally, and no small groups of staff are to report direct to the Divisional Board.
- 17. Apart from the usual duties of presiding over meetings of the Divisional Board and over other important meetings in the Division, the Divisional Chairman will keep a general watch over the work of Divisional Headquarters and over the more important items of work being done in the Areas. He will initiate at Divisional Board meetings important items of business, or see that such items are properly initiated. The Divisional Chairman will have no departmental responsibilities. The Divisional Deputy Chairman's primary duty is to assist, and deputise for, the Divisional Chairman. He will also be responsible for supervising certain departments which initially will include Purchasing and Stores and Scientific Departments and the Medical Service. Each of the Divisional Directors is to be responsible for one of the following departments—Production, Marketing, Industrial Relations, Staff and Finance.\* In the Durham, North Eastern, East Midlands and South Western Divisions there will be a Divisional Director responsible for Carbonisation Department.
- 18. Apart from his secretarial duties, the Divisional Secretary will initially be departmentally responsible for Public Relations, Patents and Common Services.
- 19. The Divisional Secretary and the Divisional Legal Adviser will report to the Divisional Board as a whole, through the Chairman or, as he may direct, the Deputy Chairman.
- 20. Divisional Boards must satisfy the National Board that, within the pattern laid down in paragraphs 16 to 19, their Divisional Headquarters is properly organised and staffed.

#### (c) Powers

21. Divisional Boards, in discharging their responsibility for the general management of their Division (see paragraph 3 above), have full authority to take decisions, save where the responsibility is specifically reserved by the National Board to themselves. The National Board will specify from time to time the powers which each Divisional Board is authorised or required to delegate to Area General Managers in particular matters. Divisional Boards and Area General Managers will ensure that the authorities subordinate to them are left in no doubt about the powers which they may, and the powers which they may not, exercise.

\*In some Divisions a Reconstruction Director may be appointed and a Reconstruction Department created.

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#### AREA HEADQUARTERS

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#### (a) Responsibilities of the Area General Manager

22. Each Area General Manager is responsible for the general management of his Area to the Divisional Board as a whole and is at all times subordinate to the Divisional Chairman and Deputy Chairman. In addition, Divisional Boards may delegate powers to Divisional Board Members to issue instructions to Area General Managers in the Division. Area General Managers will act upon such instructions and will be held accountable to the Divisional Board.

#### (b) Organisation of Area Headquarters

- 23. All departments other than Reconstruction, Legal and Carbonisation Departments, are to be represented at Area Headquarters. The Production Manager, Industrial Relations Officer, Chief Accountant and Area Secretary are to be directly responsible to the Area General Manager. The Internal Auditor and Marketing Manager will have direct access to him. The responsibility for supervising the remaining departments and branches will be delegated by the Area General Manager to the Assistant Area General Manager. In the absence of the Area General Manager the Assistant Area General Manager is to be in charge of the Area.
- 24. The fact that some departments at Area are under the direct supervision of the Area General Manager does not in itself confer on those departments a higher status than belongs to those coming under the supervision of the Assistant Area General Manager. At Area, as at all other levels of management, there must be full consultation and close co-operation between all departments.
- 25. Area General Managers must see that the organisation of their Area Headquarters conforms to the pattern laid down in paragraph 23 above, and must ensure that, within each department at Area, the work is properly grouped so that no departmental Head has too many people directly responsible to him. The National Board will issue instructions on the way in which they require Area Headquarters to be organised. Variations from these arrangements in particular Areas will only be permissible when approved by the National Board on the recommendation of the Divisional Board.
- 26. The Area General Manager may not exercise his powers of appointing staff in such a way as to depart from the authorised pattern of organisation for his Area.

#### GROUP

- 27. The level of management between Area Headquarters and the collieries is the Group, and the authority in charge at this level is the Group Manager. Each Group must comprise not less than two collieries. Apart from this requirement, it is for Divisional Boards to determine in the light of local circumstances the size of the Groups in each Area and, if they see fit, to change the delimitation of the Groups from time to time.
- 28. The Group Manager will be accountable to the Area General Manager in all matters which substantially affect the efficient operation of

the Group. The Group Manager must be given such staff as are necessary to enable him to do his work. Since the Groups must vary in size and importance and in the management problems which they present, the number and kind of staff which Group Managers should have will also vary. But it is not the Board's intention that there should be at any Group a comprehensive departmental organisation such as there must be at the Area Headquarters.

29. The Area General Manager will delegate to functional Heads at Area powers to issue instructions to Group Managers (see paragraph 8 above) and he may specify matters in which Group Managers are to report to particular functional Heads at Area, though in these as in other matters the Group Managers will remain ultimately accountable to the Area General Manager. Area General Managers may, with the approval of the Divisional Board, exclude from a Group Manager's field of responsibility any matters which do not substantially affect the efficient operation of the collieries in his Group. All matters so excluded must be clearly specified, and the Group Manager must be kept informed of all instructions on such matters issued direct to Colliery Managers (see paragraph 8 above).

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#### COLLIERY

30. The Colliery Manager is accountable to the Group Manager for the efficient management of his colliery, save in those matters which are excluded from the Group Manager's field of responsibility (see paragraph 29). In such matters the Colliery Manager will be accountable to the Area General Manager direct or through such member or members of the Area staff as the Area General Manager may designate.

#### SUPERVISION AND ACCOUNTABILITY

- 31. Policy decisions of the Board must be properly and promptly carried out, and control must be firm; in this all levels of management must play their part. Policies must be expressed fully, specifically, and where necessary, in detail. Each level of management must avoid interfering in the day-to-day work of the level of management below it, but should exercise control by means of modern management techniques, including the use of approved programmes followed by periodical reports and reviews of progress. The National Board intend that the use of standards and budgets shall be fully developed throughout their organisation.
- 32. The authorities and functional Heads at each level of management are responsible for ensuring that they obtain the information that is needed for supervising and guiding subordinate levels of management and for holding them to account. They must see that this information is not more than is necessary for efficient management at their own level and for the needs of the level of management above, and is not required to be supplied more often than is necessary.

#### CANCELLATION OF EARLIER GENERAL DIRECTIVE

 This Directive cancels the General Directive issued by the National Coal Board on 22nd October, 1953.

#### The Treasury, 1956

By D. N. CHESTER

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The Editor reviews Professor S. H. Beer's book "Treasury Control" (Oxford University Press, pp. 138, 15s. in U.K.) and discusses the significance of the recent changes in the top organisation of the British Treasury.

The Treasury is not what it was—most are readily agreed upon that. Uncertainty creeps in only when one asks whether the "was" (usually meaning the Gladstonian interpretation) was better or worse than the "is." This raises a prior question: What is the Treasury, or, spelt out, what does the Treasury do and how does it do it? Professor Beer's little book explains the contemporary orthodoxy. This Harvard Professor has sat at the feet of senior members of the Treasury (though has not, one suspects, peeped into their files) with excellent results. If it is not possible for the Treasury itself to explain so sweetly and moderately its place in the scheme of things the Department could not have fallen into more fortunate hands. Giving just sufficient facts to explain the formal process and to show that someone at some stage must have to do a little boring and possibly dirty work, he rightly puts the main emphasis on the theory, the approach, the atmosphere and the informal. Those who wish to understand the Treasury doctrine in the year 1954 and thereabouts cannot find a better guide.

The wider interest of Professor Beer's book is in his attempt to show that the co-ordination of economic policy as at present practised in the Treasury is but another form of Treasury control. "The framing and co-ordination of economic policy and the processes of central economic planning have adapted themselves to the old model of Treasury control." After first sketching out the organisation of the Treasury he therefore proceeds to explain what

Treasury control over expenditure means and how it is done.

"Treasury control in its classic form is exercised by the Supply Divisions. Its purpose is co-ordination." Such is the opening of Chapter II. This second sentence will no doubt come as a shock to those who had always imagined the primary purpose to be to secure economy in government expenditure. But let Professor Beer explain. If by economy we mean aiming to leave money to fructify in the pockets of the taxpayer, "then obviously this purpose has dwindled." If, however, we mean "to prevent extravagance in one sphere in order to have more funds available for pressing needs elsewhere," this is really financial co-ordination. Fortunately for the subsequent exposition, not to mention those hard-working Treasury and Departmental officials who labour to keep expenditure down in order to keep taxes down and not just for the fun of co-ordination, Professor Beer rather shifts his ground later. By page 56 he is saying: "To regard Treasury control as merely a means of cutting costs and saving money is to overlook some of its most important functions in British government. Economy, nevertheless, remains an important purpose of Treasury control." A little later he says: "That Treasury officials are very much aware of their responsibilities for prudent housekeeping we may be sure." True they are no longer interested in saving candle ends; we have already been told that

by Sir Edward (now Lord) Bridges. What we have not been told is what is

the equivalent to candle ends in these inflationary days.

It is hardly profitable to pursue very far this question of the Treasury's attitude towards economy in expenditure. Obviously much depends on the current political attitude towards taxation and on the people at the top of the Treasury—Ministers and civil servants. Cutting expenditure is never popular with the would-be spenders and beneficiaries, and one's general impression, which Professor Beer rather confirms, is that in recent years the Treasury have wanted at least a bronze medal in the popularity race. What is more important from the viewpoint of the chapter on economic co-ordination is the position of the Treasury vis-à-vis the departments as a result of having to exercise financial control.

In the first place the Treasury is brought into close and continuous touch with every other department and branch of government. Second, and more important, the Treasury has, with long years of experience, developed a manner of dealing with the departments which fits in "with the spirit and structure of the whole frame of government." It has had to learn to influence and control departmental expenditure without undermining the sense of departmental responsibility; to distinguish between those matters of departmental policy which the Treasury's financial responsibilities give it the right to question and those for which the department concerned must be the sole judge. All this was well stated on several occasions by Sir Warren Fisher who, strangely enough, is not mentioned in his book. "Treasury control, old or new," says Professor Beer, " is not positive direction: that is to say, the Treasury does not itself commonly take the initiative, dictating to departments what they shall undertake in order to fulfil Government policy or plans. Rather it shapes the initiative already taken by departments, by a criticism which is mainly negative bringing that initiative into accord with policy. Furthermore, while the Treasury has in some respects powers of command-negative command-in the actual practice of administration, its officials, as well as its ministers, carry out their work mainly by persuasion and compromise, as well as by the exercise of authority."

Here is the clue to the form which the co-ordination of economic policy has taken since the crisis year of 1947. Professor Beer sees the departments in broadly the same relations with the Treasury in respect of economic policy as they are in respect of expenditure. They are not subordinate to an economic dictator nor, on the other hand, is the process purely a matter of inter-departmental bargaining. Whether it is the programming of national investment or of imports the relation between the departments and the Treasury follows the Supply relationship. The departments take the initiative—"they, not the planning staff, drawing up and proposing the various projected schemes of investment . . . [though the] need to prevent the investment programme from being too inflationary often implied the need to reduce the projected total, and this involved applying

the priorities of Government policy. . . ."

This analysis and the few quotations I have chosen from a very quotable book give only the barest impression of Professor Beer's very able exposition. The book must be read. If there are criticisms they are perhaps really

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A first reading of the book gives the impression that the author is describing something which he thinks to be the best of all possible worlds. Undoubtedly there is a certain amount of starry-eyed wonder in having been allowed to peep into the inner mysteries of what a famous President of his University called "the most important of all the departments, and one that exhibits in the highest degree the merits of the English government. . . . " A closer reading, however, shows that Professor Beer sees himself primarily as a reporter and an expositor of the current theory and though he performs his job with great sympathy and apparent pleasure he nevertheless avoids taking sides. This is particularly clear when dealing with the Treasury's work of economic co-ordination. What he is in effect saying is that given the present kind of economic policy and planning the Treasury is the best home for it because it so resembles the traditional Treasury job or, alternatively, having placed economic co-ordination in the Treasury this is the kind of approach and arrangement that fits so readily the Treasury "It is," he says, "adequate to co-ordinate policy and to guide a limited degree of economic planning."

In one respect at least he leans over a little too far backward in trying to show that the Treasury is but one department among many ruled by a plural executive. What he does not bring out clearly enough is that in any Cabinet there are likely to be only three or four outstanding personalities and political leaders: men who will be powerful whatever office they hold. The great strength of the Treasury is that it is almost certain to have one of these outstanding politicians as its Minister. In contrast it is very chancy whether a Minister without Portfolio will be one of these powerful characters. Even if the calibre and political status of the Chancellor of the Exchequer and of the non-departmental Minister should happen to be equal, the traditional authority of the Treasury and the possession of such a high-grade staff will give the former the pull. No Lord President, for example, since Lord Waverley has quite had the position and ability to influence economic policy effectively and to dominate the Treasury, and there were special wartime circumstances that helped even in his case. It is just possible that Sir Stafford Cripps might have achieved this position had he not himself so quickly become Chancellor of the Exchequer. The only way the co-ordination of economic policy could be taken out of the hands of the Treasury, if that were thought desirable, would be if the "number two" or the "number three" to the Prime Minister were to be given the responsibility and the Chancellorship of the Exchequer were to be filled by a lower-powered politician. Even then the former would have to be given a staff comparable in ability to those in the Treasury and certain other senior economic departments. Such an appointment need not, as Professor Beer appears to imply, be to opt for an economic dictator or to relapse into interdepartmental committee procedure. The process of inter-departmental consultation and the respect for Ministerial responsibility are part of the current tradition of the Civil Service generally.

Professor Beer might also have asked a few more questions or on occasion shown a little more scepticism at some of the answers. For example, the criteria applied by the public to test the efficacy of the Chancellor's control

of expenditure are much clearer and more generally accepted than those applied to his actions on the economic side. Has taxation to be increased and is the budget balanced are, or were until very recently, the questions asked of any Chancellor. In the words of the oft-quoted statement of the Haldane Committee, "If he is to be held responsible for filling the reservoir and maintaining a certain depth of water in it he must also be in a position to regulate the outflow." But what is the equivalent on the economic side? Is it full employment, or a favourable balance of payments, or stability of prices, or some combination of these? And is this not in effect a vast area of government action and policy for which collective rather than individual ministerial responsibility is more appropriate? Is the Treasury prepared to accept responsibility for the fact that the £ has fallen in value by 40 per cent. since 1945 in the same way that any pre-1939 Chancellor, and any present one for that matter, felt personally responsible for a rise in taxation?

Again the annual Estimates of expenditure in all their detail and the corresponding estimates of tax yields are very precise compared with the statistics with which the Treasury have to deal on the economic side. It is pretty to talk about Keynesian theory and of Y = C + I and S = I. But the annual forecasts of national income and expenditure to which this theory has to be applied are inevitably so uncertain as to cover several atomic power

stations in their margin of error, never mind a few candle-ends.

One would also have liked to know more about the effect on the Supply side of having economic policy as a partner. One has the impression, perhaps wrongly, that the economic chaps are rather more ebullient types than those who have to scrutinise demands for increased expenditure; are used to dealing with figures in the round (to the nearest million) rather than in the flesh; and are much more susceptible to current enthusiasms than those whose labours can be measured by the annual Estimates. If this is so it would be fascinating to know how the two sides live together and how the top Treasury avoids schizophrenia.

#### The Changes in 1956

Finally, there is nothing in Professor Beer's book that leads the reader to understand, let alone expect, the important changes in the top Treasury administration that were announced not many months after its publication. On the 20th July, 1956, the Prime Minister announced these changes in the following terms:

"The Right Hon. Sir Edward Bridges, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., M.C., the Permanent Secretary to the Treasury and official Head of the Civil Service, and Sir Bernard Gilbert, G.C.B., K.B.E., the Deputy to the Permanent Secretary, will retire from the public service in the autumn. The latter post will then lapse, and with the approval of the Queen it has been decided that two joint Permanent Secretaries will be appointed in the Treasury—the Right Hon. Sir Norman Brook, G.C.B., now Secretary of the Cabinet, and Sir Roger Makins, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., now H.M. Ambassador at Washington.

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work of the Treasury and will be responsible wholly to the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

"Sir Norman Brook, in addition to his duties as Secretary of the Cabinet, will take charge of all other Treasury work, including that which falls within the responsibility of the Prime Minister in his capacity as First Lord of the Treasury. He will be the official Head of the Home Civil Service."

The retirement of Sir Edward Bridges had been pending for some time. He had reached the retiring age of 60 in August, 1952, and might well have left then but for a highly conscientious attitude towards the problems facing the Treasury and the Civil Service and the persuasion of senior Ministers.

There have been three other occasions when the Treasury had joint Permanent Secretaries. Two of these concerned Sir Edward Hamilton who was joint Secretary with Sir Francis Mowatt in 1902-03 and with Sir George Murray in 1903-07. Hamilton, though extremely able, had a long and painful illness and therefore could not carry the whole burden. During the period 1913-19 Sir Thomas Heath and Sir John (later Lord) Bradbury were joint Secretaries and in 1916 they were joined by Sir Robert (later Lord) Chalmers as a further joint Secretary. (Chalmers had already been the sole Permanent Secretary during 1911-13.) The significance of the current example lies in the link between the Cabinet Office and the Treasury and in the division of territory between the two Secretaries.

The primary reason for the change is undoubtedly overwhelming pressure of work on the top Treasury. The volume of expenditure has increased tremendously and the number of pressing issues on the Supply side must have correspondingly increased. Fiscal policy and administration are probably much more complicated than they were in the inter-war period. The traditional Treasury responsibilities for what may be called currency and credit are obviously heavier and more urgent. To all this has been added the co-ordination of economic policy with all that it implies. Though this latter work may be modelled on Treasury control it is quite a separate and additional job. On top of all this is the Establishment side, including Civil Service pay and conditions, Machinery of Government, Honours and a whole host of miscellaneous duties arising out of the central importance of the department. In 1914 the Treasury had a staff of not much more than 100, including messengers and cleaners. In 1956 it had a staff of some 1,100.

Obviously the Permanent Secretary in 1956 had to delegate much more than did his predecessors and be content to know less about what was happening in the department. The appointment of a Deputy to him in 1953, to whom he delegated wide responsibilities was, in fact, an attempt to meet the problem. But if the Permanent Secretary is to be an effective head and to see the work of the department as a whole there is a limit to what he can thrust entirely upon others, however senior they may be in the hierarchy. Anyhow, the burden involves all in the department. Since 1945 one Chancellor of the Exchequer has died after having to resign office on health grounds and another was not sorry, for the sake of his health, to move to a less exacting Ministerial post. Permanent Secretaries and their senior staff have an easier life but it cannot be all that easier and they hold office longer. It

would be rather surprising, therefore, if there had not been a feeling in some quarters that the Treasury had taken on more than it could manage and that it had not been working with the highest efficiency in recent years.

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The retirement of Sir Edward Bridges was an opportunity to review the situation afresh. At least two possibilities were present. One was to transfer some functions from the Treasury. This, in part, is the case for a separate Minister for Economic Affairs. It is a solution which would, however, raise as many problems as it would solve and would perhaps be justified only if a much more thorough-going form of economic planning were to be adopted. If, therefore, financial and economic co-ordination were to remain together, only all or part of the Establishment side could be moved. But there is no existing department quite suitable for this kind of work. A remotely possible candidate is the Civil Service Commission, at present a minor body with very limited functions. A transfer of this kind would involve completely transforming the work and status of that body. Some of this work, moreover, is closely linked with the control of expenditure.

The other alternative—to add a second Permanent Secretary—still leaves the problems of the relations between the joint heads and the precise division of the total Treasury responsibilities. To place Supply (including presumably Establishment) under one Secretary and the Economic side (possibly including for this purpose Home and Overseas Finance) under another would give the Chancellor two senior advisers of equal status in closely related fields. There is something to be said for separating the expenditure viewpoint from the general economic one and letting the Chancellor settle the issue after hearing both sides where they differ, but one can see the difficulties. Establishment was probably more easily separable but though detailed and time-consuming would hardly be a fair

share of the total Treasury work for one joint Secretary.

Combining one of the joint Secretaryships with the Secretaryship of the Cabinet opens up a possible solution to this last difficulty. It enables a rather time-consuming part of the Treasury's work to be taken off the shoulders of the Permanent Secretary responsible for the Supply and Economic sides and at the same time provides a logical basis for the division. For the Permanent Secretary to the Treasury advises two Ministers—the Prime Minister, arising originally from his also holding the office of First Lord, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. A possible division, therefore, was for one joint Secretary to advise the Prime Minister and the other to concentrate solely on the Chancellor of the Exchequer's responsibilities. The Secretary of the Cabinet is very well placed to undertake the former for increasingly in recent years he has tended to be the senior civil servant closest to the Prime Minister. He is, therefore, in a good position to add advice on senior appointments and similar Treasury matters falling within the purview of the First Lord to his other duties.

The division between the two joint Secretaries in the new arrangement, however, is not strictly along the lines of the responsibilities of the two Ministers. On such matters as Civil Service pay, conditions and numbers, Sir Norman Brook will advise the Chancellor. But that Minister will, in the words of the then Prime Minister, "have a distinguished civil servant whose whole time is to be devoted to advising him on the economic and financial

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hose ncial matters with which he has to deal" and "who will not have to carry some of the burdens which used to lie, I thought, sometimes, perhaps, a little unfairly on Sir Edward Bridges as Head of the Civil Service."\*

In considering the genesis of the new arrangements, and to show that at this level of administration it is dangerous to seek for explanations which ignore persons, it should be recalled that as long ago as August, 1951, it was announced that Sir Norman Brook would shortly be leaving the Cabinet Office to become Chief Planning Officer at the Treasury, consequent upon the impending resignation of Sir Edwin Plowden, and would act as Deputy to the Permanent Secretary. But before the change could take place a Conservative victory brought Mr. Churchill into power again. He vetoed the changes for he wanted to keep Brook's advice in the Cabinet Office. Sir Edwin Plowden was persuaded to remain as Chief Planning Officer and Sir Edward Bridges not to retire. Had the change taken place Brook as Deputy would have been the obvious choice to succeed Bridges as the single head of the Treasury and, though it did not take place, Brook has since been an even stronger favourite for the succession, providing his health could stand up to it. When Bridges decided to retire there was apparently still no serious competition to Brook within the Treasury as his successor. Thus, the new arrangement brought Sir Norman Brook to the official Headship of the Home Civil Service for which, in a sense, he had been earlier destined, yet kept him in the key position of Secretary of the Cabinet and facilitated an apparently advantageous rearrangement of functions at the top of the Treasury.

The other point to notice is the growing evidence of the closeness of the link between the top Treasury and the Cabinet Office. Sir Edward Bridges himself came from the Treasury to be Secretary of the Cabinet and returned to it as Permanent Secretary. Actually during 1945-46 he was Permanent Secretary of both departments. The announcement in 1951 that Sir Norman Brook was to be Deputy at the Treasury also named a Third Secretary in the Treasury to succeed him as Secretary of the Cabinet. In the most recent change a former Under-Secretary from the Treasury has been made Deputy Secretary to the Cabinet.

These links are to be expected, for the Treasury and the Cabinet Office are both concerned with high-level policy co-ordination. Nevertheless, there is a danger in this link being too close and this is possibly one flaw in the new arrangement whereby the Permanent Secretary of the Cabinet is also joint Permanent Secretary of the Treasury. Though it is so intimately concerned with the process of policy formation at the highest levels the Cabinet Secretariat is not there to advise on policy. The Treasury is bound to have a departmental policy on a whole host of current issues: the Cabinet Office exists primarily to see that the arrangements for Cabinet and Cabinet Committee meetings work smoothly, that accurate minutes are kept and that all the departmental viewpoints and information are available for Ministers to reach an adequate decision. It is by reason of this difference of function, if for no other, that Sir Warren Fisher's rejected proposal in 1922, that the Cabinet Secretariat should become part of the Treasury, was bad.

<sup>\*</sup>H.C. Deb. 26th July 1956. Col 641.

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Any feeling in the departments that the Cabinet Secretariat, because of a close link with the Treasury, was closely related and sympathetic to the Treasury viewpoint, or indeed was inclined to have a view of its own for which it pressed, would soon undermine the confidence that all have at present in the impartial position of the Secretariat. The danger is not very great under the new joint arrangements, for the side of the Treasury's work now to be handled by the Secretary of the Cabinet is unlikely to bring him into conflict with departments on major matters. Moreover the confidence within Whitehall in the impartiality of the Cabinet Office is so thoroughly established that it will not easily be shaken. But now there is a formal link

with a policy department the danger cannot be ignored.

One or two commentators have seen the change as indicating a possible trend in the direction of something in the nature of a Prime Minister's Department and not as being just an internal reorganisation of the Treasury. This is reading a lot into it, particularly having regard to the personal circumstances: nevertheless the point is worth noticing. Until fairly recently the Prime Minister has largely relied on the Treasury for any general official help and in particular for advice in respect of such of his duties as were derived from his also being First Lord of the Treasury. The Chief Whip, his right-hand man in the management of the House of Commons, holds the office of Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury, another traditional link with this department and with its long-standing interest in Government appointments and honours. During the past twenty or so years several things have happened. On the one hand the responsibilities of the Permanent Secretary to the Treasury have so increased as to render it less easy for him to serve both the First Lord and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. On the other a new centrally placed office has developed—that of Secretary of the Cabinet. Because he has to be in frequent touch with the Prime Minister about the arrangement of Cabinet business and because he has to deal with any Commonwealth and international meetings in London in which the Prime Minister has to take the lead, the Secretary of the Cabinet is likely to be consulted by the Prime Minister on other general governmental matters of a non-party character. The incentive to use this senior and well-placed civil servant must have been the greater by reason of the very high calibre so far of the three holders of the office-Hankey, Bridges and Brook. If what may be termed the Treasury functions of the Prime Minister are added to the other duties of the Secretary of the Cabinet, there emerges a civil servant who apart from the small high-powered secretariat at No. 10 is to all intents and purposes the Prime Minister's chief Civil Service adviser. For such work being also joint Permanent Secretary to the Treasury may be less important than being also Secretary of the Cabinet. Indeed a civil servant serving the Prime Minister in this full way could well be Head of the Home Civil Service without being head of the Treasury. At a later stage the desire or need of the Prime Minister for the whole-time services of such a senior official adviser might even lead to the separation of this person from both the Treasury and the Cabinet Office. Physical strain and possible incompatibility of the different sides of the duties would help in this direction. How easy it is to spin the future!

One additional point should be borne in mind about the present arrange-

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## STUDIES OF ADMINISTRATIVE METHODS

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#### Mail Handling. 1955. Pp. 23.

A study of the processes involved in handling incoming and outgoing correspondence. It makes recommendations both on principles of organisation and on detailed methods of work. The appendices contain lists of appliances and machines available and deal with signing policy for outgoing letters.

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A study of the problems involved in preparing and reproducing letters of appointment which will provide satisfactory contracts of service to both employer and employee, and will include the information that a new employee requires on taking up his appointment. Appendices contain a specimen letter to an office worker and one to a manual worker.

#### Local Authorities' Minutes and Reports. 1952. Pp. 28.

This detailed examination of local authorities' minutes and reports shows how economies can be achieved by reducing the length of published text and using the most economical methods of reproduction.

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# The Leeds Private Bill, 1956

By H. V. WISEMAN

Dr. Wiseman is a Lecturer in the University of Leeds and a Labour Councillor on the Leeds City Council. He gratefully acknowledges the valuable assistance he has received from the Town Clerk of Leeds and from the members of his staff who were most intimately and continuously concerned with the Bill. They, of course, have no responsibility for any of the opinions expressed herein.

Even experienced officials may deal with a Private Bill only once or twice in a lifetime. Elected representatives are fortunate to have an opportunity at all. Even if their Authority promotes a Bill while they are on the Council the odds against their being on the special committee to pilot the Bill through its various stages are great. The writer's own good fortune in being on the sub-committee of the Finance and Parliamentary Committee, one of five chosen from 112 Aldermen and Councillors, to watch over a Bill which contained originally 297 clauses and three schedules (covering 173 foolscap pages), is the excuse for this account, written primarily from the layman's point of view. This last explanation is necessary at the outset because the months of concentrated work by officials, piled upon their normally overburdensome duties and encroaching upon their all-too-little leisure, are passed over lightly—but should not pass unnoticed.

The Leeds Bill was the city's first for a quarter of a century; hence, its length and comprehensiveness. It affected 14 Leeds Local Acts and 19 Confirmation Acts and Orders; it applied 21 sections of the Health Act, 1936; it repealed 16 Acts in whole or in part, and referred in all to a further 82 Statutes. The bare summary presented to the City Council covered nearly three closely-printed pages. Summaries of parts as presented to the Town Meeting took the Lord Mayor almost two hours to read—hence, his appeal at one stage for someone to oppose something if only to rest his voice! Only the barest indication of the matters covered by the Preamble and the 17 distinct Parts can be given here. They touch on nearly every aspect of a

County Borough's work.

#### The Contents of the Bill

The Preamble contained 14 sub-sections outlining in general terms the purposes of the Bill and the "local needs" which justified its clauses Part I (Preliminary) covered four printed foolscap pages and among other things defined nearly 50 terms. The rest of the Bill may be summarised as follows:

Part II (clauses 5-48): extension of city boundaries over an area which it had for some years been hoped might be made available for housing development. (The Minister's approval for such development, covering some two-thirds of what was originally requested, was received, after a local enquiry, in time to remove objections from the West Riding County Council and the Tadcaster Rural District Council, though the Barwick Parish Council continued to oppose.) There were consequent extensions of powers to cover everything from duties under the Children Act, 1948, to the Protection of Birds Act, 1954.

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- Part III (clauses 48-65): empowered the Corporation to erect an Exhibition Hall and gave consequent powers of survey, valuation, and acquisition of land.
- Part IV (clauses 66-103): dealt with new streets, improvement, protection, and repair of streets and private streets.
- Part V (clauses 104-127): covered sanitation and building matters—sewersdrains, public conveniences, piped water supply, filthy or verminous premises, etc. It included one controversial clause, insisting upon a separate water closet for each dwelling house as an essential requirement of "fitness for human habitation."
- Part VI (clauses 128-144): covered a variety of nuisances and health matters.

  Part VII (clauses 145-155): dealt with matters concerning food—from meat to "ice lollies."
- Part VIII (clauses 156-162): sought to control "movable dwellings," and particularly camping in areas of high amenity and certain catchment areas which lie within the city.
- Part IX (clauses 163-170): dealt with Burial Grounds, Parks, and other municipal property. Among other things it authorised the spreading of the precepts from separate Burial Boards over the whole of the city, a desirable power as and when such Burial Boards were taken over by the Corporation. It aimed also to protect school playing fields from "unauthorised players of games"—hitherto undeterred by that "wooden lie," "Trespassers will be prosecuted."
- Part X (clauses 171-192): covered various matters of Public Order and Public Safety—including restrictions on the use of loud speakers in streets (naturally, with safeguards for the legitimate activities of political parties at election time).
- Part XI (clauses 193-209): sought to improve upon existing machinery to protect the public in regard to Weights and Measures.
- Part XII (clauses 210-227): provided for an interesting experiment in municipal enterprise—the provision of District Heating.
- Part XIII (clauses 228-233): dealt with certain Water matters.
- Part XIV (clauses 234-238): sought to control premises used for sales by auction, and was aimed particularly at the "mock auction."
- Part XV (clauses 239-253): covered various financial and rating matters and empowered the Corporation, among other things, to set up an Art Fund and an Insurance Fund, and to pay for public entertainment and ceremonies.
- Part XVI (clauses 254-287) was perhaps of greatest interest to the elected representatives, for some of the clauses were in fact proposed by them and were the most "political" in the Bill. (They were the worst treated at Westminster.) Notably, there were clauses providing for concessionary fares for various categories of persons, including Councillors when on Council business; to provide transport facilities for aged and handicapped persons

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when entertainment (such as Darby and Joan clubs) might otherwise be beyond their reach; to enable the Corporation to sell certain items of school clothing and to provide and manage a cold air store in connection with a new abattoir. Others ranged from the collection and delivery of washing to an Institute for Teachers; from research into matters concerning social conditions to the rehabilitation of "special families"; from the maintenance of buildings of architectural interest to the legalising of fines for the non-return of library books; from restrictions on the use of the city armorial bearings to the substitution of loose-leaf minute books for the statutory clumsy bound volumes. To return from some of these clauses to Part XVII (clauses 288-297), which covered formal matters, is to leave the hustings for the back room.

# The Origin of the Bill

The paternity of these numerous offspring is often shrouded in mystery and their period of gestation elephantine. Clearly, in many respects the powers of the Corporation and their mode of exercise—even in the traditional fields of local government activity-were out of date. Leeds, which in 1930 had possessed as up-to-date a "code" as almost any Local Authority, had since lagged behind. But the gaps were not merely due to 25 years of local contemplation: some were revealed after experience of-incompletenational legislation (and a few were filled by such legislation before the Bill became law). For some considerable time the Town Clerk's Department had been noting various deficiencies in the hope that eventually a Bill might be promoted. Other departments, notably the Health Department, were also aware of deficiencies. The matter was brought to a head by the proposed extension of the boundaries, which would necessitate a Bill, and by the problem of smoke abatement (though this was one example where, eventually, national legislation caught up with and passed local proposals). If a Bill were essential on these matters, why not include others? Some time in 1954-55 it was decided that the time was at last ripe. The officials, to whom the greater part of the Bill is clearly due, could go ahead.

A member of the Town Clerk's Department, instructed to bring the Leeds "code" up to date, spent two whole weeks of continuous work examining not only Model Clauses: Revised Edition 1953 (published by authority of Parliament as a guide to Local Authorities) but also every single local enactment passed during the preceding 25 years. From this mass of material he picked out everything which might conceivably be of use to the Corporation. Copies of these chosen clauses were then circulated to every department of the Corporation and they formed the real basis of the Bill—some three-quarters of it, in fact. Suggestions also came from the departments, notably the Engineer's, the City Architect's, the Medical Officer of Health's, the Treasurer's, and the Chief Education Officer's departments. Chairmen of Committees were made aware of the opportunity. In some cases officials sought their Chairman's support. In others, Chairmen themselves made suggestions. Committees as a whole were consulted and occasionally members had feasible suggestions. The Labour (majority) group on various committees, and then the Labour Council Group as a whole, held meetings at which existing and possible clauses were discussed at length—on the basis of verbal summaries and explanations provided by Labour members of the

sub-committee on the Bill. Presumably the Conservative group adopted similar procedures, although the result in public was not an attempt to add clauses but to delete wholly or partly some 14 existing ones. This is, however,

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an equally important aspect of public discussion.

It is useful at this point to say something of the already existing material from which the bulk of the Bill was drawn. Model clauses have been referred to above. These fall into two groups: (i) those which will almost automatically be granted to Local Authorities of appropriate status if included in a Private Bill; and (ii) those for which "local need" must be proved.1 The Government Department concerned draws the attention of the Select Committee considering the Bill to those model clauses in the Bill which require special proof of local need. Then there are "precedented clauses," those which have previously been included in other Local Acts. Here, the fewer the previous Acts, the weaker the precedent. If the clause has been granted in only one previous Act, and particularly if it were granted only because of a proved local need, this does not necessarily constitute a precedent. The promoters of a Bill deposit with Mr. Speaker's Counsel and with the Lord Chairman's Counsel a marked copy showing which clauses are "model" or "precedented," and where "models" or "precedents" have been departed from. In the Leeds Bill 35 clauses were completely unprecedented (of which nine were eventually struck out) but there was not one single page of the Bill on which no alterations (either omissions or additions) were marked by the promoters. The alterations were sometimes made to suit local circumstances, sometimes because they were thought to be an improvement. In one or two instances Government Departments were pleased to acknowledge that Model Clauses had been improved when redrafted for the purposes of the Leeds Bill.

By September, 1955, the Bill was in sufficient shape for formal discussions in the Finance and Parliamentary Committee. Members received a summary of clauses, 277 at this point, covering 36 duplicated foolscap sheets, together with a further eight sheets of notes on clauses and proposed clauses. Information was provided in regard to "models" and "precedents" and also on 12 clauses which were contained in Bills already before Parliament. (We were able to watch the latter's progress. When we learned, for example, that a clause on School Agreements was being blocked on Second Reading we could ask the Leeds M.Ps. to support it. The clause eventually went through and constituted a very recent precedent for ours.) A little later a printed draft of the Bill was available for our use. By the end of October we were ready, after two long sessions, for the special meeting of "F. and P." For this, besides the above-mentioned material, we received additional comments, further explanatory notes, and possible new clauses—covering nine foolscap pages. There were also copies of letters from organisations protesting against certain clauses, notably that providing for the sale of School Uniforms. The special meeting began at 2.15 p.m. and lasted until well after 7 p.m.-when some of us proceeded immediately to a Group Meeting which was already discussing the Bill. Meanwhile, officials in Leeds and Parliamentary Agents

in London were even busier.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The Joint Select Committee on Private Bill Procedure (1955) recommended (para. 70) that all model clauses should be regarded as "no more than guides for drafting" and "not acceptable without questioning."

#### THE LEEDS PRIVATE BILL, 1956

#### Private Bill Procedure in Outline

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It will be convenient to set out here the main stages in Private Bill procedure from the point of view of Parliament. Other aspects are referred to at appropriate places in the article. The first link between local action and action at Westminster is the deposit of the Bill in Parliament in the Private Bill Office. There it is considered, together with any petitions claiming that due legal procedure has not been complied with (in respect of notices, Council Meetings, etc.), by two Examiners, one from each House. If the Parliamentary Standing Orders governing Private Bills have been complied with-or if both Houses decide that they may be dispensed withthe Bill is allocated to one of the two Houses. First Reading is then formal. The Bill is then returned to the Private Bill Office to make doubly certain that Standing Orders have been complied with. It is then given a Second Reading in the House to which it was allocated. Assuming that—as is usual the House does not reject the Bill at this stage, then one of two things will happen. If there are no petitions against the substance of the Bill it goes to the Committee on Unopposed Bills. There the Preamble will be proved, in other words the reason for and the expediency of the Bill must be explained to the satisfaction of the Committee. If the Bill is petitioned against, the Committee Stage is taken by a Select Committee consisting in the Commons of four, in the Lords of five, members. This stage is "quasi-judicial" and both promoters and petitioners may be, and usually are, represented by counsel. The precise nature of the procedure will appear from the following account of the Leeds Bill. The Select Committee then reports to the House and the Bill is given a Third Reading. The Bill has then to go through precisely the same stages in the other House. Assuming the absence of conflict between the Houses, normal in these matters, it then receives the Royal assent.

## Council Meetings on the Bill

In addition to the procedure outlined above, two Statutory Meetings of the City Council must be held. Some account of the first, held on 16th November, 1955, will throw light on local attitudes. On this occasion there were actually two meetings, one formal to confirm the minutes of "F. and P.," the second, the statutory meeting itself. For  $2\frac{3}{4}$  hours the Bill was debated in detail. Leeds is fortunate in that a verbatim report of Council proceedings is kept. The report covered 33 pages of very small print, excluding the resolution containing a "summary of purposes." Its main importance here is the evidence provided of the extent of local agreement and disagreement.

Critics of the party system of local government are usually answered by the statement that more than 90 per cent. of committee work is conducted on a non-party basis and that few divisions are taken on party lines. The record of the Leeds Bill confirms this answer. Of 297 clauses the Conservative Party sought to delete only seven and to amend seven others. Of the first seven, four were mainly concerned with details of procedure for the acquisition of land, etc.—"lawyers' clauses"—which the Conservative leader, fired perhaps by the terms of reference of the Franks Committee, sought to delete in the name of "liberty." Three were "political," covering the sections to

abolish "shared lavatories," to establish an Institute for Teachers, and to empower the Corporation to sell school uniforms. "Rights of property-owners," "economy," and "opposition to municipal enterprise" were the three themes underlying the opposition. On the first four of these same seven clauses minor amendments were later accepted. On the last three no compromise was possible. The motion to delete was lost by 64 votes to 36. On the amendments to the seven other clauses, minor changes were again made at a later stage so far as six of them were concerned. On the seventh, to delete concessionary fares for councillors from the general clause, a party vote (62 to 33) refused to make the change. The normal and reasonable process of local legislation was thus well illustrated: local agreement on the greater part of the Bill, accommodation on some minor points, a firm stand by the majority on four matters held to involve principle.

This statutory meeting was the first occasion the Bill really came before the public, although there had been some previous press discussion as some of the likely clauses became known. The public, however, appeared little interested at this stage, for the galleries were never more than a quarter full. For those more intimately concerned the meeting was but an interlude in

the long process of detailed work.

## Negotiations

We may depart, temporarily, from the chronological sequence of events to deal a little with this detailed work. From the moment when the Bill was deposited in the House of Commons, officials were concerned with negotiations with interested parties and Government Departments. Some of these negotiations could be completed by the officials. Others, which involved compromises on matters of policy, had to be brought before the elected sub-committee. For example, a long meeting between this sub-committee and the Leeds and District Property Owners' and Ratepayers' Association resulted in a compromise whereby the Corporation agreed to meet by way of grant up to 100 per cent. of the cost of providing separate lavatory accommodation for each dwelling-house. Objection to the clause was withdrawn. A similar attempt to persuade the National Farmers' Union to accept seven days as the minimum age for the slaughter of calves was less successful and the clause was eventually defeated on Second Reading in the House of Commons. In all, more than 30 organisations, including local authorities, public corporations, industrial, commercial, professional and charitable bodies sought to obtain assurances, amendments or deletions. A large number were satisfied by negotiation, a great saving of time and money before the Committee Stage in the Commons was reached. Others considered it necessary to lodge petitions against the Bill, though even then, at a later date, it was possible to meet further objections so as to obtain the withdrawal of most of the fifteen which were deposited.

So far as Government Departments were concerned, they submitted their preliminary observations on the Bill after it had been deposited, to the promoters, in writing. Where necessary, discussions were held; as an indication of their importance it was largely as a result of consultations with the Minister concerned that the extension clauses went through successfully. Points outstanding after these discussions were included in the reports of

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the various Ministries to the Select Committee—copies being sent, though often at the last moment, to the promoters. Before the Select Committee civil servants drew attention to these points. Though they may not be cross-examined, queries may be addressed to them by counsel, through the Committee, and the Departments by no means always get their own way.

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# Town Meeting and Town Poll

Boroughs and Urban Districts, unlike Administrative Counties and Rural Districts, must, under Part XIII of the Local Government Act, 1933, hold a Town Meeting and, if necessary, a Town Poll. It is not proposed to discuss in detail the arguments for and against this requirement. The expense involved, the belief that there is adequate publicity without the addition of meeting and poll, the feeling that local councils are sufficiently responsible to the electors without these extra appeals to the latter's judgment, and above all the safeguards provided at the Committee Stage in the House of Commons—all these appear to justify the opinion expressed by the Association of Municipal Corporations in their Memorandum to the Joint Committee of Lords and Commons that Town Meetings and Polls should be abolished.<sup>2</sup> Experience with the Leeds Bill appears to the present writer to support the A.M.C'.s case.<sup>3</sup>

The Leeds Town Meeting was held on 28th December, 1955. Attendance was not as catastrophically low as in some Boroughs. But a maximum vote of just over 500 is not representative of a city of 500,000. Those present were, for the most part, "interested parties" at least in the general sense in which Professor Wheare uses the phrase in Government by Committee. In some cases they were "interested" in the more specific and usual sense. The Leeds Labour Party had conducted considerable propaganda to ensure the presence of as many supporters as possible—at least as legitimate a procedure as the usual efforts of organisations with a vested interest in opposing certain classes of Private Bills to ensure support for their point of view.

The meeting began at 7.30 p.m. and ended at midnight. By then 166 voters remained. The proceedings were conducted by the Lord Mayor. On the platform were the two party leaders, the other members of the subcommittee and a few Chairmen of Committees to speak on certain clauses if opposed. Officials were present to advise. The need not only to give but to appear to give members of the public every opportunity to express their opinion makes procedure very lengthy and cumbrous. The Lord Mayor had to read a lengthy explanation of each part of the Bill (one Part covering perhaps as many as 50 clauses). Any member of the public present had the right to move the deletion, though not the amendment, of any clause. On each such motion a Council representative stated the case for the clause, and the Leader of the Council moved that it should "stand part." However overwhelming the vote either way, tellers counted and recorded exact figures. By midnight the pleasant meeting over a glass of sherry between the Lord Mayor and the sub-committee which had taken place at 4.30 to discuss

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>See Municipal Review Supplement, March, 1956, App. C, paras. 24-39.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>The Joint Committee on Private Bill Procedure recommended the abolition of Town Meetings and Polls (1955, H.L. 14, 58-I; H.C. 139-1, para. 79).

procedure seemed far away. But at least the Transport Department had laid on a night service—with no concessionary fares for Councillors!

That only 13 clauses were opposed again shows how wide the agreement was on a Bill of 297 clauses. The Exhibition Hall was supported by 353 votes to 135. The Conservative leader mustered 186 votes against a clause enabling the Corporation to acquire land for certain purposes, e.g., transport undertakings, parking places, markets, but 341 opposed him. The Liberal Party (unrepresented on the Council but constantly represented in the public gallery by one of its annual candidates) opposed four clauses. Proposals to charge some of the costs of street lighting installations in private streets to the owners concerned were carried 344 to 176. Power to enter premises in connection with the provision of district heating was confirmed 332 to 23. The Institute for Teachers (against which the solid ranks of Conservative Councillors on the front rows joined the Liberals) was supported 291 to 95. "Shared lavatories" were uncompromisingly condemned, 414 to 9. On the latter figure the Lord Mayor permitted himself the light relief of " no mention of lost deposits, please!" Business interests sought to defeat the compulsory registration of catering premises; they lost 369 to 23. The municipal cold-air store-voting fell with the fall of temperature-was supported 167 to 13. Rather surprisingly, the local secretary of the R.S.P.C.A. joined with the N.F.U. to oppose the clause forbidding the slaughter of calves below the age of seven days; they were defeated 297 to 93. Hygiene triumphed over the traditional weakness for animals when a clause to keep the latter out of food shops was upheld 418 to 21. An attempt to delete the provisions to legalise fines for the non-return of library books was defeated 211 to 12. Finally, on the two most "political" clauses of the night-concessionary fares for councillors and the sale of school uniforms (the latter opposed by the Leeds Chamber of Commerce but supported by at least one "small" tailor)-voting was 227 to 85 and 254 to 68. When, on the stroke of midnight, the Bill as a whole was put to the meeting, five stalwarts had remained to oppose, 161 supporters were present to give the impression of overwhelming approval.

The Council was thus happily relieved of the necessity to arrange a poll in order to try to restore the deleted clauses. Equally happily for the ratepayers, in no case did the necessary 100 electors demand a poll in a further attempt to achieve deletions, though it was touch and go up to the last minute. One general observation seems appropriate. Defeat of a clause at the Town Meeting, and where the clause is not restored by a poll-or defeat of a clause at a poll-is final. There is no way of restoring the clause. Parliament accepts this negative local decision. But positive local opinion as expressed in the Town Meeting, or even at a poll, is not so accepted. It may still be overruled by Parliament. The argument that too few voters record their opinions to be representative would appear to cut both ways. If it is considered large enough to negative a clause, it is large enough to sustain it. If it is considered too small to sustain it, it is too small to be final. At least the Corporation might be permitted to take the matter for decision by Parliament. This argument, however, supports the case for abolishing Town Meetings and Polls. So long as they are retained, there is much force in the contention that clauses supported by them ought not merely to go before Parliament, but befo Second their perh not

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before the Select Committee without the possibility of being thrown out on Second Reading. If there is any point in Town Meetings and Polls at all, their positive as well as their negative decisions should carry weight. There is perhaps too much of the attitude of Mr. G. Hirst, M.P. (Shipley)—" I have not a lot of faith in Corporations" (550 H.C., Col. 1349).

#### Over to Westminster

The New Year brought a speeding-up of activity both in Leeds and London. By 6th January the sub-committee had to study a further three foolscap sheets of comments and three letters and memoranda from opposing organisations. Meanwhile, various proposed amendments were explained by the Town Clerk and accepted by the sub-committee-part of the process of removing opposition before the Committee Stage. A fortnight later a further report detailed various points still at issue. These illustrate the kind of obstacles which have to be overcome by promoters of a Private Bill. Of a large number of objections, many of which could be removed by the officials themselves, there remained to be discussed by the sub-committee six matters raised by the British Transport Commission; four by the Cinematograph Exhibitors' Association; two each by the Brewers' Society and the Federation of British Industries; and one each by the Passenger Vehicles Operators' Association, the Animal By-Products Parliamentary Committee and the Theatrical Managers' Association. Later again a further report dealt with five specific clauses which were being opposed by the North Eastern Gas Board and the National Coal Board. There were also various suggestions from the Home Office, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and the Treasury Solicitors: these were points which came before the subcommittee; practically every Government Department had some observations which had to be dealt with by the officials. But by this time interest had shifted to Westminster.

Private Bills normally arouse little interest and less excitement in the House of Commons as a whole. But objection by only one M.P. when Second Reading is put down on the Order Paper, if persisted in on three occasions, makes necessary a full-dress Second Reading Debate. Inevitably there was some political and "business-interest" opposition to certain Leeds clauses. The Bill was opposed on the three stipulated occasions and set down for Second Reading on 8th March, 1956. Politics, however, in these days, like peace, are indivisible. The long queues outside the House on 8th March were interested not in Leeds but in Cyprus. Second Reading was postponed until 21st March.

Meanwhile, we kept in touch with our M.Ps. Contact between Local Authorities and M.Ps. is not always as close as might be. Questions have been asked in the House without that prior consultation with the Local Authority which their nature seemed to demand. On the other hand M.Ps. often have legitimate cause for complaint that local representatives do not seek their aid early enough, or do not draw attention to matters which might be usefully referred to in question or debate. It is obviously more difficult where the majority on the local council is of a different party from the M.P. Leeds experienced similar difficulty because two Leeds M.Ps. were opposed to certain clauses—though otherwise all were keen to do their best for their

city. In any case meetings with busy M.Ps. are not easy to arrange. For some time it was possible only to maintain liaison by correspondence; all the M.Ps. were sent notes on the clauses which it was known would be opposed on Second Reading-notes covering 15 foolscap sheets. A week before Second Reading the sub-committee visited London for consultationsseparately with the Conservative and Labour M.Ps., though the politicallymixed sub-committee met each group in a body. The main object of the meeting with the two Conservative M.Ps. was to attempt to persuade them not to attempt to delete certain clauses; it was not achieved. The meeting with the Labour M.Ps.—given added dignity by being held in the private room of the Leader of the Opposition (Mr. Gaitskell is, of course, the Member for South Leeds) who, indeed, stated the case for maintaining one particular clause on Second Reading-was to provide information on clauses which were to be opposed, to arrange which M.Ps. would take the lead on behalf of the Corporation, and generally to decide upon tactics. There were also some interesting matters of parliamentary procedure which arose almost at the last minute.

The original Order Paper for 8th March showed that one group of six M.Ps. had given notice of an "instruction" to delete four clauses. Another group of three M.Ps. sought to delete the boundary extension clauses. (This, however, did not arise. With the removal of objections from the West Riding County Council and the Tadcaster Rural District Council, and the fact that the M.P. for the Parliamentary Division affected had to leave for the Far East, the matter was not pressed.) One M.P. sought to delete one further clause. No procedural difficulty arose over this. It was not clear, however, whether there could be one general debate on four clauses (with separate votes on each "instruction" at the end) or whether each must be debated separately. The Chairman of Ways and Means held that the former was possible. The M.P. for West Leeds, whose researches into precedents took him some 200 years back in parliamentary history, claimed that each clause must be debated separately. He convinced the Chairman of Ways and Means. Thus, by talking at length on the first clause until 9 o'clock all discussion on subsequent clauses, and possibly even the vote on the first "instruction," might be prevented. The Bill would thus go to the Select Committee without instructions-a consummation devoutly to be wished by the Leeds Corporation and the Leeds Labour M.Ps., but not the two Leeds Conservative M.Ps. and some of their colleagues. They might, therefore, have decided to oppose the Second Reading itself rather than let the Bill go through without instructions to delete opposed clauses.

It should be explained that a Private Bill must be given a Second Reading before instructions are moved. Moreover, no new opposed business—and instructions to delete would be opposed—may be introduced in the House after 9 o'clock. If, therefore, the Second Reading itself is opposed and a general debate ensues, this might be carried on until 9 o'clock (the normal time for finishing debate on Private Bills) without discussion on any clauses, or even without a vote being taken. This, indeed, had happened on a previous Private Bill. To counter the possibility that, if the Second Reading were approved without debate, Labour M.Ps. might talk out time to prevent a vote on the first "instruction," the Conservative M.Ps. therefore hinted at

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the possibility of preventing any Second Reading vote at all. To meet both sides the Chairman of Ways and Means decided therefore that Standing Orders should be suspended. On these conditions all could approve a Second Reading without debate and then proceed to debate the "instructions" to delete certain clauses, knowing that there was all the time required to consider all the instructions, none of which could be talked out. The proceedings, therefore, began at 7 p.m., but instead of terminating automatically at 9 p.m., continued until 11.20 p.m. It now appears that what was then virtually unprecedented—a suspension of Standing Orders for a Private Bill—has since become, at least temporarily, the normal rule for all Private Bills opposed on Second Reading. Whether Local Authorities will regard this as a tribute to the importance of their work or as a warning that there will normally be a parliamentary hurdle prior to the Committee Stage is not clear.

Experienced M.Ps. said afterwards that on the occasion of the Second Reading of the Leeds Bill there was something of the atmosphere of a big debate, extremely unusual for such a Bill. Certainly it was a large Bill; it contained some controversial clauses; it had aroused such conflicting opinions that Standing Orders had to be suspended; it was known that interested M.Ps. on both sides had done a good deal of unofficial "whipping" -for the Whips are not on for Private Bills. There were notable protagonists on both sides, for example Mr. Kaberry for the Conservatives, Mr. Gaitskell for the Labour Party. But no one can really explain with certainty what turns an ordinary occasion into an almost-big one. The simple facts are that the lowest number of M.Ps. taking part in a division was 218. The other figures were 268, 274 and 283. Members gathered in the library and smoke rooms, almost as for a great occasion. As the fine for a division approached there were rustles of movement and excitement and that faint speculative susurration which suggests there might be a faint chance of a surprise result. Indeed, it was said that the first division might have gone otherwise had the last Labour M.P. not spoken for quite so long. A sufficient number of Conservatives returned from a dinner to defeat the clause providing for a cold ice store by 136 to 132.

The elected representatives from Leeds, of course, watched an this from the Strangers' Gallery. Leeds officials, temporary substitutes for Civil Service advisers, sat uncomfortably "under the stairs" where they were consulted by those M.Ps. (all on the Opposition Benches) who were piloting the Bill on behalf of the Corporation, and by some others who sought clarification or information about the possible withdrawals of certain sections—as the price of allowing others to go through. (This applied mainly to the concessionary fares clause on which some categories were objected to.) The four debates (in the end, only four clauses were opposed) covered

16, 24, 26 and 12 columns of Hansard respectively.

As already indicated, party differences entered very little into the Leeds Bill either at local or national level. True, on each of the four clauses debated on Second Reading members divided on party lines, and defeat of two proposals—for a municipally-run cold air store and for the sale of school uniforms—was probably inevitable with a Conservative majority in the House. (Curiously enough, the former was virtually covered by the Food

and Drugs Act!) Municipal enterprise is one of the few remaining fundamental differences on local government matters between the parties. The clause forbidding the slaughter of calves under seven days old was defeated partly on the orthodox ground that this should be covered by national legislation and partly because the Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Agriculture considered that sufficient powers existed already. N.F.U.'s opposition helped to decide the issue. But there was some party feeling on the clause concerning concessionary fares and this merits attention.

The clause provided in general terms for travel concessions on Corporation vehicles for six classes of persons: men over 65 and women over 60; persons not over 15; persons between 15 and 19 undergoing full-time education; blind persons; persons with such disability or injury as seriously impairs their ability to walk-and members of Council when travelling in the performance of approved duties. The clause was admittedly drafted in somewhat general terms and much would depend on the manner of its operation. On the first category, M.Ps. refused to accept assurances given on the Corporation's authority (e.g., that pensioners only would be assisted and only in off-peak traffic periods, etc.). But opposition was mainly directed against the sub-section concerning Councillors. In the City Council the Conservatives had moved only to delete this last category; there was no disagreement on the rest. Conservative M.Ps. also, to judge from their contributions to the debate, were also concerned mainly to delete Councillors from the list. But no agreement could be reached on how this might be done. The writer must "declare an interest" here and hope to do justice to both sides.

The Labour majority in Leeds felt that the whole clause should go to the Select Committee which, if it saw fit, could delete the offending sub-They were not prepared themselves to give up the battle before the Committee Stage. The Conservative M.Ps.—unfortunately for local unity, led by a Leeds M.P.-although they were aware (the Town Clerk specifically ascertained this from the Private Bill Office) that it would be in order to move the deletion just of the sub-section dealing with Councillors -insisted that if that sub-section were not withdrawn they would move the deletion of the whole clause. In the event the whole clause was deleted from the Bill.

One other Second Reading matter deserves mention. The appropriate Government Department usually offers advice to the House on disputed clauses, though no Government Whips are on. The Government spokesman is usually assumed to be expressing a departmental not a personal view. On this occasion the Joint Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation ventured the "personal opinion" that there was probably no validity or substance in the distinction made in the Local Government Act, 1948, between County Councils and Boroughs so far as Councillors' travelling expenses are concerned. The point made by one Memberthat the Minister cannot express sympathy when he stands at that Box because "he is presumed to be speaking for the Government"—was not fully taken up, though the Minister did seek to justify his apparent rôle of " Mr. Facingboth-ways." The moral of the incident is not clear, unless it be, quite simply, that Members do not expect a Government spokesman even on a Private Bill be s relie

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The visit to London for the Commons' debate was in one sense light relief for the local representatives if not for the officials, though those who find sleep difficult to come by on a "sleeper" may have felt otherwise. In fact, the most intensive work-apart from the period immediately after deposit-probably begins with the approach of the Committee Stage. The negotiations referred to earlier are stepped up. Objections may thus be removed even at the last moment. Democratic practice demands that the elected sub-committee approve negotiations and compromises. meeting, for example, it was announced finally that all opposition to the boundary extension clauses had been removed save that of the Barwickin-Elmet Parish Council. This, however, could not be taken lightly since Select Committees have a habit of looking after "the little man." clauses were eventually withdrawn; they dealt mainly with hygiene and food matters and were covered by new Regulations which came into force after deposit. Various minor changes were discussed. More than 30 matters raised by the National Coal Board were reported as having been dealt with by the officials, of which some six required the general approval of the subcommittee. Other concessions were agreed upon in an attempt to accommodate the North-Eastern Gas Board, though, in the end, the latter petitioned against the District Heating clauses. As light reading before the next trip to London there was the further printed copy of the Bill as put before the Select Committee—now reduced to 293 clauses.

# The Committee Stage

On Wednesday, 18th April, 1956, on arrival at the Parliamentary Agents direct from the "sleeper" and a station breakfast, it appeared that half the high-ranking Leeds officials as well as many Aldermen and Councillors were already in London. It is impossible to judge how long particular clauses will take or how many witnesses will be required. Promoters must be ready for every eventuality—and ratepayers to meet every expense. At 10 a.m. at the House of Commons conference began with eminent counsel briefed on the Corporation's behalf. Final arrangements were made as to tactics, witnesses, documents and evidence. The Corporation briefed two Q.Cs. and one Junior Counsel. Petitioners against the Bill briefed two Q.Cs. (one taking two separate petitions) and two Junior Counsel (one taking three separate petitions). In addition to the Leeds Parliamentary Agents there were seven other Agents. These, with representatives of government departments, witnesses, reporters, and a few members of the general public, foregathered at 11 a.m. to face the four members of the Select Committee -two Conservative and two Labour M.Ps. with one of the former as the Chairman, who possesses a casting as well as an original vote. Thus began six days' deliberations, the report of which covers 260 foolscap pages. From this it is possible to select only a few outstanding features as a basis for subsequent general criticism.

Of the 15 petitions originally deposited against the Bill, eight had been withdrawn as a result of negotiations. Seven remained to be heard by the Committee. They were from the British Transport Commission, the Central

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Committee on Camping Legislation, the North-Eastern Gas Board, the Public Transport Association Ltd., the Salvation Army, the West Yorkshire Road Car Co. Ltd., and the Parish of Barwick-in-Elmet. Contrary to the statement which still appears in all standard text-books, the Preamble is not proved before consideration of clauses. It is read formally. Opposed clauses are then considered in whatever order suits the convenience of counsel (often briefed on several Bills) and witnesses, subject to the Committee's approval. The case for the Part or Clause in dispute is opened by counsel for the Promoters; evidence is called; counsel for the petitioners crossexamines and then states his case (possibly calling witnesses); counselfor the Promoters then winds up. The A.M.C. has suggested that time could be saved " if the practice of reading the petitions by Promoters' counsel could be dispensed with. Petitions are lodged prior to the sitting of the Committee and any person interested is able to obtain copies. Thus, all persons concerned not only have the opportunity of acquiring, but undoubtedly have full knowledge of, the contents of the petitions prior to the hearing before the Committee, and it seems an unnecessary waste of time to read the petitions merely to get them on the minutes." Although with petitioners' counsel's permission certain extracts only may be read, this suggestion is fully justified by experience on the Leeds Bill.

To form a definite opinion about the part played in the proceedings by Committee Members themselves is not easy-the less so because their deliberations after evidence has been heard are in private. The Committee is a "quasi-judicial" body, but it is permissible to speculate about their "inarticulate major premisses." Their devotion to an arduous and unpublicised task is unquestioned. Their knowledge of local government matters-to speak only of this particular Committee-is apparent. Their usually brief retirements to consider their decision suggest a capacity to absorb evidence readily and reach judgment in the process without much delay. An alternative explanation—that their minds are made up very early on-is not borne out by the prima facie evidence in these particular proceedings. Occasionally one seemed to discern a tendency to lean one way rather than another as much because of a general attitude as because of the weight of evidence. Such tendency usually appeared slightly more obvious in the Labour members. They gave the impression of a desire to help the Local Authority. (This is a personal interpretation and might not be

confirmed by other observers.)

On a rough count, and excluding consideration of clauses not petitioned against, when members were slightly more active, during the six days the Chairman intervened with questions on about 40 occasions, the other three members on 11, 44, and 88 respectively. The longest consecutive run of questions was 14; the same Member also had other lengthy interventions amounting to 12, nine, and seven questions. On one occasion he indulged in what was virtually a cross-examination of petitioners' counsel to the extent of five somewhat lengthy questions. The writer is by no means convinced that the Committee could not perform its task equally well without the assistance of counsel, but this opinion is bound up with observations on procedure yet to be made.

Opposed clauses must clearly be examined in detail. But it does not

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appear that any less justice is done to unopposed clauses when only Promoters' counsel are present; their contributions might, with respect, be as effectively made by the local officials in charge of the Bill. The Committee also has the assistance of government departments. It is difficult not to conclude that much time is wasted during examination and cross-examination of witnesses. This appears especially with questions aimed to establish admitted facts which, it seems, might as well be put in as written evidence. On the extension clauses, for example, the Leader of the Council was asked over 100 questions covering eight foolscap pages. More than 50 required only the simple answer "yes" or its equivalent. The evidence of an outside expert on local government finance, admirable-perhaps decisive-in itself, seemed to grow neither in stature nor clarity by reason of his examination. The City Architect was asked 29 questions, of which 19 sought confirmation of purely factual statements and required only the answer "yes" or its equivalent. Professor Wheare has said that most members of local government committees can read though many won't! The latter is surely not true of Select Committees, who might be trusted to ask their own questions of Local Authority witnesses or petitioners' representatives where clarification is required. At times counsel gave the impression of trying to score a point rather than establish the truth and it is clearly inappropriate to examine, e.g., a Medical Officer of Health on a matter of general law-a procedure rightly commented on tartly at one point by counsel for the Corporation. Procedure on provisional orders or special procedure orders4-or even on the Committee Stage of Public Bills, where counsel's assistance is not deemed necessary—might be considered as a basis for possible reform of procedure on Private Bills.

The results of the Committee's deliberations on the Bill itself must now be considered. On the five opposed clauses (some of the seven petitions overlapped), which took very nearly four days to consider and the report of which covers some 200 foolscap pages, the Corporation fared very well. The Extension Clauses went through unchanged, a rare achievement since The Exhibition Hall site was reduced by that portion occupied by the Salvation Army Hostel. (In the Lords a further site was excluded on a new petition.) On the Welfare of Aged and Handicapped Persons the full force of the British Transport Commission and the Public Service Vehicles Operators obtained the exclusion of that section which would have empowered the Corporation to assist such persons in travelling for recreational purposes. The Corporation, in the face of strong opposition by the Campers' Associations (which was repeated before the House of Lords), were successful in upholding the clauses dealing with movable dwellings. These provisions in their accepted form were largely unprecedented. The provisions as to district heating were modified by the Committee so that the Corporation's powers were restricted to their own estates-all that Leeds actually wanted. But the mass of restrictive clauses which the North-Eastern Gas Board (which petitioned in both Houses) and the Electricity Authorities (who tried to negotiate amendments) wanted were rejected. Leeds Corporation were the first Local Authority to fight these restrictive clauses and it appears that

<sup>4</sup>Compare some suggestions of the Joint Committee on Private Bill Procedure, 1955, para. 75.

some 25 Local Authorities had previously agreed to accept the restrictive clauses rather than fight them.

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The Committee took just over a day to consider unopposed clauses in the light of observations made by various Government departments, including the Home Office, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Agriculture, etc., the Ministry of Education, and the Attorney-General. Seven clauses were "struck out" by the Committee. They covered such divergent powers as the letting of land without ministerial consent; the destruction of verminous timber; the deposit of refuse in streets; the driving of vehicles on footpaths; the control of "ice lollies" on the analogy of ice cream (a clause which led to much amusing legalistic and dietetic argument, but which would have provided what many regard as a very desirable safeguard of children's health); the notification of premises to be used for the sale of food; the closure of streets for repairs, etc. The Committee also formally approved the withdrawal of certain clauses on the initiative of the Corporation. The clause dealing with "unauthorised games on school playing fields" was notable for a difference of opinion between the Home Office and the Ministry of Education. The latter, backing the Corporation, won and trespass became a criminal offence in the circumstances outlined in the clause—an exceptional thing in English law.

In the final stages a number of amendments covering points discussed earlier before the Committee were agreed to with little further argument. Finally—and this is again worthy of note in view of inaccurate statements about proving the Preamble—there came the following dialogue:

- "Are you the Town Clerk of Leeds?"-" I am."
- "Have you read the Preamble?"—"I have."
- " Is it true? "-" It is."
- "The Chairman was directed to report the Bill, as amended, to the House."

#### Leeds Again-and the Lords

The Leeds Bill, at this stage, contained 282 clauses. Of the original 297, four had been deleted by instruction from the House of Commons on Second Reading, seven had been lost before the Select Committee and ten had been withdrawn by the Corporation (due mainly to supervening legislation). This left 276, but the addition of six clauses agreed to by the Corporation after negotiations with certain Ministries and other bodies brought the number up to 282. Meetings of the sub-committee of elected representatives were held, mainly to discuss the implications of the news that the Central Committee for Camping Legislation intended to pursue opposition in the House of Lords; that though the North-Eastern Gas Board was inclined to accept the decision of the Select Committee, The Gas Council intended to oppose the district heating clauses (in the event, The Gas Council withdrew, but the North-Eastern Gas Board renewed its opposition before the House of Lords); that the Central Electricity Authority intended to pursue the same course (though, at the last, it did not do so). Students of government will be interested to learn that the ctive

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Ministry of Fuel and Power, which had nothing to say in the Commons, wrote in support of the precisely similar petition of the Gas Board in the Lords. Action suggested on these various matters, as well as on some minor amendments proposed to overcome a number of technical objections, had to be generally approved by the sub-committee. Finally, tactics and witnesses had again to be arranged for the Lords' stage.

It is not necessary to review proceedings in the Lords in detail. Second Reading produced no surprises. The Chairman (Lord Latham, some-time Chairman of the London County Council) and his four colleagues dealt with opposed clauses on Committee Stage. Five petitions had been deposited, but two were withdrawn after negotiations. The three remaining occupied two-and-a-half days and the report covered well over 100 foolscap pages. As in the Commons, the Preamble was taken at the end, and with equal formality. It has already been stated that the site of the Exhibition Hall was again reduced on a new petition for the exclusion from compulsory purchase. The "camping clauses" were left unchanged. The Gas Board obtained only one very minor amendment. The Lord Chairman (who occupies the same position in regard to Private Bills in the House of Lords as the Chairman of Ways and Means in the Commons), with the aid of his counsel as advisers, considered the unopposed clauses. A few minor amendments were made, mostly in response to government departments which pursued various objections to the bitter end. On this, one observation may be permitted. Government Departments, on the whole, do not appear to adopt a very tolerant or trusting attitude to Local Authorities seeking to extend their powers. The spirit of the Local Government Manpower Committee does not altogether appear to have entered into their soul.

In due course, proceedings on the Leeds Bill—which, as is most frequently the case, involved no disagreement between the two Houses—closed with the traditional and formal royal assent on 2nd August, 1956.

#### The Final Stages in Leeds

The Finance and Parliamentary Committee met on 26th October, 1956, to receive a final report from the Town Clerk, and to deal with local matters consequent upon the passing of the Bill. Although the Act came into force when the royal assent was given, with the exception of the boundary extension for which the appointed day was 1st April, 1957, some sections did not become operative until the Council had appointed a date. It was the function of the Finance and Parliamentary Committee to nominate the various Committees of the Council, to carry into effect, subject to confirmation by the Council, various sections of the Act, or to retain control itself over certain sections. Provision was also necessary for co-ordination and consultation between two or more Committees where the subject matter of sections overlapped their terms of reference under the Council's Standing Orders. Two Schedules, covering between them nine foolscap pages, were presented for the Committee's consideration. Details need not be given here, but as an indication of the scope of powers involved it may be mentioned that two complete Parts and 12 sections were allocated to the Finance and Parliamentary Committee; 29 sections and one whole Part to the Town Planning and Improvement Committee (four sections jointly with other Committees);

13 sections to the Highways Committee (three jointly with other Committees); 7 sections to the Parks Committee (two jointly with other Committees); 19 sections to the Health Committee (three jointly with other Committees); 3 sections to the Welfare Services Committee (in two cases jointly with another Committee); 6 sections to the Housing Committee (four jointly with other Committees); 2 sections to the Street Lighting Committee (in one case jointly with another Committee); 1 section to the Cleansing Committee (jointly); 4 sections to the Education Committee (one jointly); 2 sections to the Baths and Property Committee (one jointly); 5 sections to the Libraries and Arts Committee; 6 sections to the Watch Committee: 5 sections to the Fire Brigades Committee; 1 each to the Markets and Waterworks Committees. Some general sections were not allocated to specific Committees. Another way of emphasising the scope of the Act as passed is to state that of the 26 Committees through which the Leeds Corporation performs its functions, 16 were affected by the new powers.

As a final comment upon the Bill so far as Leeds is concerned, we may quote a passage—its restrained pride well justified—from the Town Clerk's final report: "Apart from the matters mentioned above" (the lost clauses) "it can be said that the Corporation lost very little of the Bill and although many amendments were made most of them were improvements and the principle of the clauses remained intact. There are a number of clauses in the Bill which are unprecedented. It can now be said that the Corporation have an up-to-date and comprehensive scheme of local act provisions. . . . This General Powers Bill was one of the largest, in some respects the most

controversial, and one of the most successful for many years.'

#### Conclusion

Without disagreeing with the foregoing comments, it is necessary, however to mention certain proposals of the A.M.C. which have a bearing on criticisms of Private Bill procedure made in the course of this article. The Association is opposed to a hearing before a Joint Committee (the procedure in Scottish Private Bills). They stress the advantage of the present procedure to those opposing a Bill. Petitions which fail in the First House may be re-presented in the Second House. But any clause which is disallowed in the First House is struck out of the Bill and does not come before the Second House. The present writer's view is that opponents have ample opportunity if their petition is heard before one Select Committee only. The Leeds Bill shows that neither the Central Committee on Camping Legislation nor the North-Eastern Gas Board gained anything from their second attempt before the Lords. Conversely, if opponents retain their two chances, it seems at least unbalanced that Promoters cannot attempt to reinsert a clause struck out in the First House. Is it really a fact that in these days Local Authorities constitute a serious threat to private and corporate interests and that the latter need double protection against them? The plea for what appears to some to be more than adequate opportunity for opposition derives from an era when small and not-too-wealthy interests might legitimately feel that the dice were loaded against them and when doctrines of laissez-faire assumed that all government activity, central or local, was likely to be bad. Today there is not merely an entirely different

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attitude to state intervention. The main objectors to Private Bills appear to be powerful and wealthy public and private corporations or other Local Authorities themselves. Should they be encouraged to incur expenses (often at the expense of consumers) and to compel Local Authorities to spend more (at the expense of the ratepayers)? If negotiations with Local Authorities fail, surely an appeal to one Select Committee should be sufficient?

Whether this should be before a Joint Committee<sup>5</sup> or before one only of the two Select Committees which according to present procedure consider Private Bills is perhaps immaterial except in so far as the question is bound up with the wider problem of the power of the House of Lords over Private The question may be posed, if not answered here, whether in these days the Lords should be able to exercise more power over private than over public legislation. Without overlooking the arduous and thankless task performed by noble Lords—a task always cited as an argument against the abolition of the Second Chamber-it may appear to some a little incongruous that proposals, e.g., for an extension of municipal trading or for further encroachments on the right to do what one likes with one's property should be at the mercy of the House of Lords as at present constituted. This argument is perhaps more valid as applied to the Second Chamber as a whole than to the Select Committee on Private Bills. The Leeds Bill, it is true, shows that the House of Commons can be equally as insuperable an obstacle. At least, however, the House reflects the last-expressed opinions of the electorate and although it is inevitable that some Private Bills are promoted by Local Authorities whose party majority is different from that of the House (and that therefore some controversial clauses may be lost on a party vote in the House), yet the majority can be changed—albeit too late for the Leeds lost clauses! These arguments are, of course, strongest where "political" clauses are involved. Yet the fact that Leeds kept 276 of the original 297 clauses should not disguise the fact that politics, like cheerfulness, will keep breaking in-sometimes on the most unexpected occasions.

Much of the delay and expense involved in Private Bill procedure might be avoided if a further suggestion of the A.M.C. were adopted. The relevant paragraphs from the Association's memorandum are quoted:

- 21. Over the years many local authorities have obtained powers which have been previously granted to other local authorities by local act. . . . There are a substantial number of clauses . . . approved by Parliament on a number of occasions and which might well be of value to other local authorities.
- 22. . . every two or three years these clauses might be included in a Local Government Clauses Bill . . . they could be made operative in the area of other authorities by Ministerial Order. A local authority . . . would have to prove the need for powers . . . and a limited amount of advertisement in the local newspapers would be required. It would not, however, be necessary . . . to promote a Bill . . .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>But compare the Joint Select Committee on Private Bill Procedure, 1955, para. 65.

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

23. (not) . . . all the clauses in local acts would necessarily be included in the suggested clauses Bill . . . (nor) would it necessarily follow that an Order would be made (on the request of a local authority). . . . But enquiry would be made by the appropriate Minister to satisfy himself that it was necessary and appropriate for the power to be conferred on the particular local authority.<sup>6</sup>

The present writer is in full agreement with these suggestions—as a step towards the more liberal Local Authorities Enabling Bill such as the late Arthur Greenwood proposed—then refused to accept when he had become Minister of Health—and which has not since been resurrected by the Labour Party, still less considered by the Conservatives.

For the rest—the whole experience described in outline above has been most valuable to one who sometimes feels the need to contradict the jibe that "those who teach can't do." Though not an experience for which one could afford the time and energy too frequently.

\*Compare the Joint Select Committee on Private Bill Procedure, 1955, paras. 69-73. The Committee recommended that "the Government should at least once every ten years introduce a Bill containing clauses conferring powers applicable either to Local Authorities generally or to particular classes of local authorities" (para. 80).

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# The Health of Executives

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-73. ten ocal By V. C. MEDVEI, M.D., M.R.C.P.

Dr. Medvei discusses a matter of supreme importance to all those in positions of command and responsibility in private or public undertakings.

The health of executives has been much discussed recently. This is perhaps due to the fact that life is much more complex nowadays and that large organisations, whether they be governmental, industrial or military, call for an increasing number of responsible administrators. Indeed, the term "managerial revolution" has been coined to imply that Capitalism is being replaced not by Socialism but by the rule of the administrators in business and government. This enlargement of the field of responsibility, together with the complicated matter of integrating multiple interests, is said to account for the increased cause of stress to which people with responsibility are especially exposed.

#### What is Health?

Before proceeding any further, however, I should perhaps say what I mean by "health." I do not use the term "positive health," nor the definition contained in the constitution of The World Health Organisation, viz.: "Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." I prefer to say that health is satisfactory when the signs of health are present and, like J. C. Raven,¹ I regard the chief signs as "the qualities of resilience, stamina, equanimity and self-reliance."

Resilience means the ability to adapt oneself quickly and easily to fatigue and ailments. "Like other people, the healthy man gets tired, contracts infectious disease or may get injured, but he quickly responds and becomes himself again." When tired he is able to rest, to sleep and wake again refreshed.

Stamina means the capacity for sustained effort, together with the ability to draw on and to rebuild reserves of energy.

Equanimity (of temper) means that a healthy person is not put out by things going on around him, or which may even interfere with what he has to do.

Self-reliance, one of the most important signs, implies assurance, confidence and personal freedom of action. The healthy person not only knows what he wants to do and has the courage to do it, but he also "shows resourcefulness in adapting his actions to the needs and wishes of other people with a 'lightness of touch and a sense of humour.'" "He can mix with other people as equals and friends and he has the confidence of others sufficiently to do whatever he wishes generously and wholeheartedly."

# High Resistance to Strain in Leading Personalities

There is, theoretically, no reason to assume that senior executives should show less resistance to stress than other members of their society. One of the reasons for achieving and successfully maintaining leadership and responsible positions is normal or even increased resistance to stress (in its widest sense).

It is well known that the sickness absence rates of people in responsible positions are—on the average—very much lower than those of other ranks and this fact is by no means due merely to better standards of living and

working conditions.

As Lord Horder<sup>2</sup> pointed out, it may be of greater importance to assess the resistance and stamina of the second stratum of executives, of the younger men who aspire to senior positions, and among whom the future leaders will have to be found by search and selection; those who have already succeeded in being in the top line have usually proved their special toughness for achievement and have to undergo further tests only in case of exceptional stress.

One of the ablest of modern British leaders, the late Field Marshal Earl Wavell, in his Lees Knowles Lecture, "Generals and Generalship," delivered at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1939, referred to the question of strain. It is well worth reading or re-reading this lecture, illustrated, as it is, by many amusing stories which are all to the point. To me the most important lessons contained in Wavell's lecture are, first, the above average resistance to stress in leaders of men which one expects and usually finds; second, that age is by no means a necessary handicap to successful leadership. Of modern examples we may think of Sir Winston Churchill and the late

Field Marshal Smuts.

Lord Wavell gives a good illustration of what he terms the robustness and adaptability needed in the make-up of a general. As a very young officer, he was told that, whenever in the old days a new design of a mountain gun was submitted to the Artillery Committee, they had it hauled up to the top of a tower, some hundred feet high, and then dropped on to the ground below. If it was still capable of functioning it was given a further trial; if not, it was rejected as "flimsy." The Committee reasoned that mules and guns might easily fall down a hillside, and must be made capable of surviving so trivial a misadventure. "On similar grounds, rifles and automatic weapons submitted to the Small Arms Committee are, I believe, buried in mud for 48 hours or so, before being tested for their rapid firing qualities. . . . Now the mind of the General in war is buried, not merely for 48 hours, but for days and weeks, in the mud and sand of unreliable information and uncertain factors and may at any time receive, from an unsuspected move of the enemy, an unforeseen accident or a treacherous turn in the weather, a bump equivalent to a drop of at least 100 feet on to something hard. Delicate mechanism is of little use in war; and this applies to the mind of the commander as well as to his body; to the spirit of an army as well as to the weapons and instruments with which it is equipped. All materials of war, including the General, must have a certain solidity, a high margin over the normal breaking strain. It is often said that British war material is unnecessarily solid; and the same possibly is apt to be true of their generals. But we are certainly right to leave a good margin."

It should not be forgotten that the human body functions normally with a large margin of reserve. So does the human mind. It is my firm conviction that no one is fit to hold any position, high or low, difficult or of his does n

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We kn emotion The couseful i mental but be; effects limits of process stress v patible (conflict simple, for any length of time, if he has to use more than 50-60 per cent. of his mental capacity for carrying out the routine work of his post. This does not apply, of course, to exceptionally heavy demands during a major crisis.

## Fatigue in Ill-Health

If, as I strongly feel, we can have confidence in the present and future health of our leaders notwithstanding the apparent increase in conditions likely to produce stress, it still remains necessary to consider how the wear and tear of responsibility may be avoided or minimised in those whose stamina and resilience might otherwise be unequal to the strain of high executive positions; for it is the case, unfortunately, that some fall by the wayside, and some do not achieve, or cannot maintain, their high potential. It would be true to say that two of the chief enemies to health are fatigue and stress, and an understanding of their nature will help to defeat them.

Fatigue is a much more complex condition than is generally supposed and this is why it is so difficult to define satisfactorily. Obviously, it does not apply to what we may term normal healthy tiredness at the end of a normal working day which is completely restored by rest or sleep; scientifically

this would be mainly "impairment."

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The increased knowledge of fatigue which is now available as the result of scientific investigation is of the greatest importance in the assessment of resilience and stamina. It reveals that there are many kinds of fatigue states, some of which are physiological and can be measured; others which are states of so-called mental fatigue not identical with, but partially overlapping, the physiological. As an example of physiological fatigue there is a well-defined type of exhaustion due simply to lack of the necessary amount of sugar circulating in the blood. This can be measured and rectified, being usually due to a harassed and irregular dietary.

For the purposes of this paper, I am more concerned with the fatigue state which arises out of unresolved conflicts and in frustration. It is one form of attempt to retreat or escape from a situation which has become too difficult to cope with. If the situation is prolonged, fatigue nearly always follows. It is clearly an over-all state and must always be attributed to and

considered in terms of the person as a whole.

#### Stress

We know now that much physical illness arises from some nervous or emotional cause for which the term "stress" is an alternative expression. The concept of stress is borrowed from the physicists, because it provides useful analogies between strain undergone by physical objects from environmental stress, which within certain limits of elasticity may be only temporary but beyond those limits may result in permanent distortion; similarly the effects of environmental stimuli on the living organism may, beyond certain limits of adjustment, cause distortion and disorganisation. Such adjustive processes break down in two conditions: when the organism is faced with stress which it cannot surmount (frustration) and when two or more incompatible tensions compete with one another, preventing suitable adjustment (conflict). In man, conflict is the rule rather than the exception when

decisions have to be made. In the case of conflict, according to R. W. Russell,<sup>3</sup> disorder may be produced in three ways. In the first, the subject or the person feels bound to approach and at the same time to avoid the same goal—the so-called "approach-avoidance" situation, as, for example, when a henpecked husband experiences unquenchable thirst for a visit to the "local," but is afraid of his wife's reprisals. The second—the "avoidance-avoidance" situation—occurs in the case of a patriotic soldier who is afraid to advance because of the danger from the enemy and also afraid to retreat because of being called a coward. The third—the "double-approach avoidance" situation—is the dilemma of Buridan's ass, which starved to death between two bales of hay, unable to make up its mind to move further away from either.

Are executives more exposed than other people to "stress diseases?" Sir Heneage Ogilvie, in a lecture "In Praise of Idleness," picked out three which affect the inhabitants of the older and more civilised communities. They are toxic goitre, duodenal ulcer and essentially raised high blood pressure. We may add two others: diabetes mellitus and coronary heart

disease.

The point must be made, however, that all those diseases are not really caused by "stress" alone. Everybody has in his bodily or mental make-up weak spots or weaker systems. There are whole families with history of digestive disorders, or in which the occurrence of high blood pressure and cerebral haemorrhage is not infrequent; obesity and sugar diabetes are also often familial; but exposure to physical or mental strain brings about the conditions which may mark the beginning or the recurrence of such diseases. Stress has thus a "trigger effect," which is readily understood, if considering the research into the effects of stress which have been carried out in the past ten years especially by Hans Selye<sup>5</sup> and his co-workers. They summed up their findings in three momentous sentences:

- "(1) Any systemic stress (viz., one affecting large portions of the body) elicits an essentially similar syndrome with general manifestations.
  - "(2) This syndrome helps adaptation.
  - "(3) Adaptation can cause disease."

Among the stresses which affect large portions of the body are cold, fatigue, worry, infections and intoxications (including alcohol). The key position in the defence mechanism of the individual is occupied by a small part of a very small organ, the cortex (rind) of the adrenal glands (two small glands which are adjacent to the kidneys, and which are glands with internal secretion like the thyroid, the pituitary and the sex glands). One of the most important hormones of that adrenal cortex is cortisone, which thus brings even rheumatic disorders into the circle of stress and adaptation disorders. The adrenal glands have a direct influence on sugar metabolism, blood pressure, obesity, mental anxiety and fear, and an indirect effect on many other organs and functions.

Now executives have to live with more than the usual amount of anxiety, fear, worry and often a sense of guilt. This occurs, in addition to harassed and irregular time schedules of work and eating arrangements, not to mention the physical fatigue caused by travel, large (or too small) meals, alcohol

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and nicotine. The reason for excessive worry and fear is the fact that in big business or politics, or anywhere where great responsibility is involved, the number of problems which appear insoluble-at least at first glancebecomes an almost daily occurrence. The strong will learn to live with their worries; the weaker brethren will fall by the wayside; but there remain a fair number of people who appear to be able to cope with worry for a long time, but have to pay a price: the price of premature hardening of the arteries, of indigestion and peptic ulcer, of increased blood pressure, of sleeplessness and irritability, all signs of an incomplete adaptation. Admittedly, there are some who can stand the strain of responsible work over a long period and show a special resistance to fatigue and worry. I agree with Sir W. Russell Brain, who told me once, in a personal communication, that-in his opinion-this capacity depends on some unknown constitutional factor. "Such people can work for ten, twelve or more hours at a stretch if necessary, and at the end of it are no more fatigued than the ordinary person after an eight-hour day, or perhaps less so. With this perhaps goes a capacity to sleep quickly and with good relaxation, great power of concentration which enables them to work in almost any circumstances without distraction, and an ability to switch the mind quickly from one subject to another. Churchill, of course, exhibits all these features in a high degree. But I am inclined to think that either a man has them or he has not, and that if he has not there is not much can be done about it though his path may be made easier in various ways."

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# The Method of General Motors

Some large organisations have drawn the obvious conclusions from what has been said above. For example, General Motors Ltd., to whom I am indebted for the information, insist on treating their executives like expensive machinery, making certain they have adequate leisure, holidays, secretarial help, comfort on journeys and at work, etc. The hours of work will depend on a person's constitutional capacity, as mentioned above, but also on emotional influences on working capacity: there are the quick, concentrated type of people who may go through the same amount of work in an hour as others do in four hours: they may still have reserves at the end of that time, or they may feel as exhausted as the other group of "slow plodders" after a spell of four hours' work. If so, they should not be spurred to further efforts, but given time to relax. The same applies to the question of sleep. There are people who sleep readily and well, and wake refreshed after six hours sleep a day. Others may need eight or even nine hours. The time of sleep plays an important rôle: there are some who sleep best before midnight, and work best very early in the morning. Another group (which includes Sir Winston Churchill) can work well during the night, but dislikes early morning rising and work. These trends are not merely idiosyncracies or habits caused by training in childhood and youth (after all Churchill was trained as a regular officer), but also constitutional in nature, perhaps influenced by such factors as sugar metabolism and liver function, and accumulation and excretion of waste products from the body.

It is obviously useful from time to time to have a specialist medical overhaul of anybody over the age of 45 and there are certain large organisations

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in the United States and in this country who have introduced a periodic system of annual medical examination for their senior staff. General Motors Ltd. have now also introduced it in England and have very kindly permitted me to mention their method. The scheme is entirely voluntary and encourages every executive with an income of over a thousand pounds per annem to have a complete medical examination by a nominated physician once a year. If considered necessary, radiological and other laboratory examinations can the results are strictly conficential between the examining physician and the executive or the executive's private doctor, should it be considered desirable to inform the latter. The firm itself merely arranges for the xamination and pays the necessary fees from a central office. A report on the result of the examination is sent to the person concerned, but no report whatever is given to the Company. If the report contsins advice i regard to treatment or action to be taken, it is entirely for the executive to decide whether or not he is going to accept the advice. In the United States a similar scheme has been in operation for some time, but on a far more eleaborate scale. There, apparently, the people participating in the scheme enter a Clinical Centre for a whole day and X-ray and other examinations are carried out as a matter of routine.

# Dangers of Automatic Periodic Medical Overhaul

Valuable as such a scheme may be, there are a few remarks which have to be made. In the first place, it may give people examined in such a manner a sense of false security. It is known that in some cases of impending disaster of the coronary blood vessels of the heart, no clinical symptoms may be present and even examination by means of an electrocardiograph may not show any changes up to 24 hours before a severe attack occurs. I remember in particular a senior company director who had an expert overhaul before going to Switzerland for a sports holiday. Everything was found to be normal, yet he was laid up with a coronary thrombosis on the night after his arrival.

In another type of person a regular examination may cause anxiety. I am combining my own personal experience of this point with that of many of my colleagues in my profession who all confirm that examinations of people over a certain age are often dreaded by the patient concerned. He may be highly strung and is afraid he may be told that something is wrong with him. The voluntary nature of the examination does not always help; some people are afraid to go, but develop a guilt complex if they do not volunteer to undergo the periodic re-examination. Obviously, a great deal will depend on the examining physician who may be able to reassure his patient sufficiently. In one particular series of a group examination of senior executives by a good and understanding physician, it actually happened that the majority of them found their way back to him with all sorts of fears and alleged complaints, whereas they had not seen a doctor for many years and had felt perfectly fit previously. It must also be remembered that an annual examination will not give the medical expert any true picture of the patient's background and the possible stresses to which he may be subjected at home or at work.

This fact has been fully recognised by great personalities in history and by Royalty in general who have their doctors as personal friends. The influence of medical advisers who are at the same time personal friends has been very marked on national leaders in recent years.

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The practical application of these remarks is that it is better to have good medical advice from a man who is not only an efficient physician but also knows the work executives have to carry out and is familiar with the background and the possible stresses at home. He will readily suggest the right line of medical examination should this become necessary and, above all, he will generally be able to detect when something is amiss long before it is apparent. If a system of regular medical overhaul is introduced it should certainly be done in a manner which prevents both the creation of a sense of false security and that of a malade imaginaire.

## The Heavy Burden of Social Activities

I have always regarded with admiration the number of people in middle or later age who have been able to carry out their numerous social and public activities which appear to be part of the heavy burden of their work. The head of one of the medical professional organisations remarked that for two solid years he and his wife had to attend dinners and luncheons and make speeches six times a week and that he nearly broke down under the strain of it.

I feel that much of the social burden should be shared between the senior and the younger group, and, similarly, that board and committee memberships and meetings should be pruned to a rational total. The arrangement on the big liners like the *Queen Mary* and *Queen Elizabeth* seems to me ideal, where, I understand, there is a Staff Captain of full rank supporting the Captain in Charge who has to play the host as well as command the ship. The social burden can influence the physical and mental stamina of a man much more than is usually recognised; laborious days cannot be safely overloaded with constant nights out and with innumerable public dinners.

#### Labour and Relaxation

There is no book of rules how a senior executive should spend his leisure hours and his holiday; but here are a few suggestions of what he should not do. Physical fitness will not be found by over-exercise, i.e., exercise beyond the capacity of age, training and skill. A vigorous game of tennis or golf may add to the tiredness caused by intensive business activities and may lead to exhaustion instead of restoration of energy. The ability to relax varies with the individual, time and opportunity; but it is still an art. Some people possess a natural gift for relaxing and others do not; but a great deal can be achieved by training. A good night's rest after a strenuous time is very important. Sound sleep often expresses the ability for complete relaxation and is also a measure of one's mastery of the situation. Napoleon was famed for being able to sleep during battle, and Lord Montgomery has a reputation of being a sound sleeper on the eve of great events. In order to achieve sleep in difficult times it may be worthwhile using occasionally a sedative before going to bed.

Change in surroundings is useful, more from the point of view of

"getting away from it all" than as an indication of "having a good time" which may require a considerable expenditure of energy. Here again the advice of the "friendly physician" may prove of great value. Hobbies can be strongly recommended if they are purposeful, carried on regularly and do not become an obsession. They are usually enjoyed and therefore suited to the personality of the individual. They are also a good investment against the fear and boredom of retirement and they discourage the postponement of the retiring date because there is something to look forward to after giving up the work of a lifetime.

## The Need for a Good Deputy

As a concluding point, I would like to emphasise again the necessity of an able and reliable deputy or junior partner for leading executives. Those deputies should be preferably eligible for succession, but young enough to take a fair share of the burden without any undue jealousy, and experienced enough to support their seniors in the work inside and outside office hours.

#### Conclusion

It is not sufficient to understand the problems connected with the health of senior executives; the head of an organisation must be personally responsible for carrying out the policy of actively guarding the precious health of his most senior team-mates, and tackling these problems. Only occasionally will a director of personnel be able to cover this special field and then only if he has the understanding and active support of his commanding officer. Unless full responsibility is taken at the very highest level, little will be achieved in this urgent question.

Physical or mental breakdowns cannot be prevented by routine medical examinations alone nor by any set of rules and each case will present different

The main pillar of my new approach is that there must be continuing partnership between physician and executive-in other words that they must work together throughout to obtain results.

<sup>1</sup>Human Nature. London, 1952.

<sup>2</sup>Lord Horder, Lecture to Association of Industrial Medical Officers, 1951.

<sup>a</sup>Ernest Jones Lecture, British Psychoanalytical Society (1st December, 1952). British Medical Journal, 1949. I, 645.

<sup>5</sup>Hans Selye, "Stress," Acta. Inc., Montreal, 1950.

For other reading see:

V. C. Medvei, Z. Klin. Med., 1933. 125, 554. S. A. Portis, Journal of the American Medical Association, 1950. 142, 1281. S. A. Portis and I. H. Zitman, Journal of the American Medical Association, 1950.

144, 1162. Sir F. Bartlett, Symposium on "Fatigue." Ergonomics Research Society, London

S. H. Bartley and Eloise Chute, Fatigue and Impairment in Man, New York and London, 1947.

Sir G. Vickers, Lancet, 1952, ii, 1265.

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# Employer-Employee Relationships in the Federal Public Service of Australia

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By LEO BLAIR

The Lecturer in Comparative Government and Public Administration in the University of Adelaide follows up his recent article on Arbitration in the Spring, 1956, issue. He wishes to acknowledge the generous assistance given by the Public Service Board and many Departments in the collection of the material on which the article is based.

It is now hardly necessary to mention that Governments, like other employers, have come to appreciate the value of good employer-employee relations and the Federal Government of Australia is no exception. If proof were needed of the change in attitude in the Commonwealth Public Service since the beginning of this century towards employees it is to be found in two very contrasting statements. In 1904 the Report of the Public Service Commissioners (page 54) contained the following paragraph:

"Since taking office I have gladly granted recognition to three Associations whose avowed objects, if strictly adhered to, will, I feel, greatly contribute to the social, intellectual and ethical advancement of their members; but the caution cannot be too early given that as soon as any attempt is manifested by an Association of stepping beyond the limits of its legitimate and acknowledged functions, so soon will difficulties arise. . . ."

In 1951 the Public Service Board issued a Training Handbook which (at page 38) stated:

"Representative organisations are afforded every facility from the administration and you are advised to join your service association. It is now widely recognised that organised staff associations are a help not only to individual public servants but also to the departments and the Service as a whole. The worth and method of participation by the staff in management are among the more recent discoveries in administration."

The purpose of this article is to outline the machinery at present existing in the Commonwealth Public Service for employer-employee consultation and discussion and for staff participation in the processes of administration and management. Very broadly, these relationships can be divided into two groups:

- (a) Those which have as their object the improvement and protection of standards of general conditions of service:
  - (i) Wage and salary arbitration;
  - (ii) Staff associations and the Joint Council;
  - (iii) Welfare committees and similar bodies.
- (b) Those which seek to increase staff participation and co-operation in the tasks of management and administration:
  - (i) Promotion appeal committees;

- (ii) Disciplinary appeal boards;
- (iii) Classification committees;
- (iv) Advisory committees, including training and suggestions committees.

Obviously, these divisions are not exclusive and there is considerable room for argument as to whether disciplinary appeal boards, for example, should be classified under the first group<sup>1</sup> since they might be regarded as a means of ensuring that excessive punishments are not meted out to public servants. I have chosen to classify them as a means of enabling staff representatives to co-operate in administering one particular aspect of management, i.e., the maintenance of discipline. But this is very much a question of emphasis and, in any case, the classification suggested is not intended to be a rigid one.

Refore

Before examining the activities of the bodies mentioned above it might be useful to make some brief comment on the control of the Federal Public Service in Australia. The main legislation governing the service is the Commonwealth Public Service Act, 1922-54, together with the regulations promulgated under that Act. The authority charged with the administration of the Act and regulations is the Public Service Board, which consists of a Chairman and two Commissioners. Members of the Board are appointed for a period of five years and may be reappointed; in order to provide a measure of political independence members of the Board can be dismissed only by the Governor-General acting with the concurrence of both the House of Representatives and the Senate.

The duties of the Public Service Board are defined in the Public Service

Act:

"In addition to such duties as are elsewhere in this Act imposed on it, the Board shall have the following duties:

- (a) To devise means for effecting economies and promoting efficiency in the management and working of Departments . . . ;
  - (b) To examine the business of each Department and ascertain whether any inefficiency or lack of economy exists;
  - (c) To exercise a critical oversight of the activities and the methods of conducting the business of each Department;
  - (d) To maintain a comprehensive and continuous system of measuring and checking the economical and efficient working of each Department, and to institute standard practices and uniform instructions for carrying out recurring work; and
  - (e) Such other duties in relation to the Public Service as are prescribed " (Section 17 (1));

and to enable the Board to carry out these duties it is given statutory powers to:

- "(a) Enter any Department for the purpose of carrying out its duties;
  - (b) Summon any person whose evidence appears to be material to the determining of any subject of inspection, inquiry or investigation being conducted by the Board;

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#### EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS IN FEDERAL PUBLIC SERVICE OF AUSTRALIA

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(d) Require the production of documents" (Section 19 (1)).

As well as these tasks pertaining to the efficiency and economy of the Departments, the Public Service Board is the employing authority and is thus concerned with the examination and appointment of candidates to the Public Service and with the creation and abolition of offices.

Having thus briefly outlined the nature of Public Service Board control, we can now proceed to consider the various means by which the Board and the Departments on the one hand and public servants on the other seek to secure maximum harmony in their relationships.

## The Public Service Arbitration System<sup>1</sup>

A statute which, for the public servant, is of almost equal importance with the Public Service Act is the Public Service Arbitration Act, 1920-55, which establishes the machinery employed in resolving disputes between Federal public servants and the Public Service Board or the employing Department concerned. The Act governs in detail the procedures to be followed in arriving at the settlement of such disputes and provides for the appointment of a Public Service Arbitrator who, like the Board, enjoys the privilege of being removable only by the Governor-General with the consent of both Houses of Parliament.

Section 12 (1) empowers the Arbitrator to "determine all matters submitted to him relating to salaries, wages, rates of pay, terms or conditions of service or employment of officers and employees of the Public Service," and his determinations are binding on all parties to disputes arising therefrom.

The whole emphasis of the Act is on conciliation rather than arbitration and, where possible, agreement is reached between the Public Service Board and staff organisations without the necessity of obtaining a formal hearing before the Arbitrator, and even when a formal claim has been lodged with the Arbitrator by a staff association and corresponding objections have been made by the Board, the Arbitrator must call a conference at which the points in dispute can be freely discussed by both parties and at which the Arbitrator can give guidance on points at issue. Only after this negotiating conference has broken down are matters dealt with by a formal "public hearing" at which evidence is taken and arguments presented by both sides, the procedure followed being not much different from that of an ordinary court of law.

Formerly, there was no appeal from the determinations of the Arbitrator, but since 1953 an appeal lies to the Full Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, a tribunal of judges established in 1905 for the purpose of settling industrial disputes beyond the limits of any one State. One effect of the system of appeals has been that the Arbitrator has been forced to delay deciding certain claims because similar ones have been sub judice by the Conciliation and Arbitration Court and the Arbitrator has "hung fire" pending the Court's decision. This has caused a "backlog" of claims which has had a result quite unforeseen by the Public Service Act itself. Many staff associations now see fit to approach the Public Service Board with a view to getting agreement on as many issues as possible at the same time; the informal discussions which take place on these occasions do save the time of the

Arbitrator and appear to work to the satisfaction of both staff and Board.

The principle of Public Service Arbitration means in effect that there is a large measure of dual control over the public servant's conditions of employment; these are governed generally by the Public Service Act and Regulations administered by the Public Service Board, but the Public Service Arbitrator is an authority to whom public servants, through their staff associations, can apply for improvements in their salaries and general conditions of service. This dual control has been severely criticised, not only for the way in which it works but for the principle which it admits—namely that any form of arbitration is desirable in the Public Service. One critic writes thus:

"The public servant is an employee of the Crown not merely of the Government of the day, although it is that Government that acts on behalf of the Crown. That Government created a Public Service Board to discharge personnel functions on behalf of the Crown, and the Board has gradually developed skills and techniques for effectively carrying out these functions. That it sometimes acts in opposition to the Government of the day in protecting or advancing the interests of officials under its control is clear. . . . Is there therefore any need for an Industrial Court to duplicate that protection? . . . There is substance in the contention that as the public servant is sui generis his standards and conditions are adequately met by the original idea of a Public Service Board. The Board can be so organised as to deal with each and every official; the Court can only deal with groups in the mass and tends to legislate for the average. The procedure of the Board is calculated to evoke a desire for co-operation, that of the Court tends to foment a spirit of litigiousness which can be destructive of esprit de corps . . . cases before the Court are formal, protracted, costly and calculated to disrupt public business by withdrawing from their duties clouds of witnesses for the contending parties."2

It is worth noting that successive Arbitrators have embraced the view that matters of administration, many of which have been aired during arbitration proceedings, should be left to the Public Service Board and that an Arbitrator should not interfere in these matters. But the very existence of an authority possessing powers to some extent in conflict with those of the Board must make the latter's task of administration more difficult.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, the idea of arbitration is very firmly implanted in the minds of public servants and no government would attempt at present to abolish the existing system.

# Staff Associations and the Joint Council

As in most modern public services the staff of the Federal Public Service enjoy the right of association for the purpose of negotiating with the Public Service Board in respect of general conditions of service and employment. But apart from endeavouring to further the interests of their members in the usual ways, e.g., by seeking higher wages, staff associations in recent years have sought a measure of participation in the general management of the Service. Not untypical of the staff association approach to this question is

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"Officers who have served for any length of time in employee organisations have acquired a wide knowledge of the Public Service and have a definite contribution to make to the administration. It will be found that they have not lost their capacity for forming sound decisions or of judging a case on its merits . . . the appointment to the Board of a representative of the employees would ensure that questions bearing on the welfare of officers and employees would be fully considered when matters affecting their employment are under consideration."

While it is not intended to discuss the merits and demerits of this highly controversial field of staff relations, it might be observed that, although, as will be seen later in this article, a large measure of employee participation in administration is possible in the Public Service, it has very definite limits so long as staff associations have as their primary rôle the advancement of their members. The Public Service Board is, after all, an employer charged with the duty of administering the Service in the most efficient manner—that administrative efficiency may often conflict with the interests of personnel cannot be denied. What then is the position of the staff association representative on the Public Service Board? His divided loyalty may impose severe strains on his attitude to, for example, matters involving the pecuniary advancement of members of the Public Service.

However, although the value of an employee representative on the Public Service Board may be doubted, there is a great area short of this in which staff associations can do much. And it was mainly in recognition of this fact that in 1945 a Joint Council was established, the purpose of which was to further the co-operation of Public Service staff associations in the solution of administrative problems. The creation of this Joint Council was largely the result of representations made to the Prime Minister of Australia by the Chairman of the Public Service Board. It was felt that the inauguration of an officially constituted body, meeting regularly, would assist free interchange of ideas between staff representatives and the "official" side on matters of general concern to the Public Service. In 1945, therefore, the Public Service Act was amended to provide for the establishment of a "Joint Council . . . representative of the Board, the Departments and the staff organisations."

The Joint Council is not an executive but an advisory body enabling the Public Service Board to obtain the views of senior public servants and staff representatives on topics of importance in the service. But, although advisory, it has considerable influence and many of its recommendations are accepted by the Board; and apart from its direct effect on administrative problems it is a means of allowing staff association officials and senior

administrators to become familiar with each other's problems.

There are fourteen members of the Joint Council: six departmental representatives, who will normally be senior administrators of some experience; seven representatives of the organisations, five of whom will be nominated by the High Council<sup>6</sup> and two by the Australian Postal Workers' Union; the Chairman, who must be a member of the Public Service Board. The Australian Postal Workers' Union is given separate representation because

of the fact that it is the only large Public Service Association not affiliated to the High Council of Public Service Unions.

Regulations made under the Public Service Act make provision for Departments or staff organisations to submit to the Public Service Board any matter which they consider to be of general interest in relation to the Service; it then lies with the Board to refer these matters to the Joint Council. In practice, any topic referred to the Board is passed on to the Council, which is then left to decide whether or not any item should come within its purview.

After having investigated any particular matter, the Council must report back to the Board, but need not make any recommendations or proposals should this be considered undesirable or unnecessary. Where, for example, a particular aspect of some topic under consideration by the Council is sub judice by the Public Service Arbitrator, the Council will usually content itself by suggesting that the matter in question be left to the Arbitrator to decide.

The phrase "of general interest in relation to the Public Service" has given rise to some difficulty. The Council should consider matters of broad general principle-it was never meant to take notice of individual cases; but if the Council is to be a really useful body it is essential that its field of discussion should be as little restricted as possible. A liberal interpretation of the phrase has been adopted and although there have been occasions when the Council has had to reject items as not coming within its scope, generally speaking the good sense of the Departments and the staff associations is the main guiding factor in the submission of matters for the Council's consideration. Among recent topics which the Joint Council have discussed have been recreation leave, long-service furlough, sick leave and travelling allowances.

As the Council meets for only two days at a time (these meetings take place about every four months) it is customary for committees to be appointed which can conduct continuous investigations into matters referred to them by the Council. A committee normally consists of two departmental representatives and two representatives of the staff associations, with the Chairman of the Joint Council acting as committee chairman. It is possible for persons with "specialist" knowledge to be co-opted to these committees where

this is thought desirable.

## " Welfare" Committees

Another important example of the machinery used to improve the general conditions of the Federal public servant is that which relates to the field of "welfare and social amenities." As might be expected there is no uniformity of practice here, each Department making its own arrangements, sometimes formal, sometimes informal according to the particular working conditions-although all work on the broad principle, laid down by the Public Service Board, that staff welfare is an important part of departmental management, and that certain minimum standards of accommodation and amenities must be maintained.

One or two examples of how departments tackle this area of staff relations will serve to indicate the variety of means employed. In the Department EMP of S

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of Shipping and Transport, for example, there is a Welfare Committee composed of employees elected by their fellows and which works in very close co-operation with the Assistant Secretary (Administration) who, of course, presents the official standpoint. As well as ensuring that certain standards laid down by the Public Service Board (e.g., regarding the type of office furniture to be used) are observed, this Committee promotes the introduction of other amenities conducive to improved staff welfare.

In the Department of Civil Aviation there is a slightly different type of body. Unlike the one just mentioned it does not deal with the official aspects of staff welfare which are the responsibility of the Personnel Branch. It is termed the Civil Aviation Institute and, although originally formed on the initiative of members of the staff, it is controlled by a Council representative of both the employee and employer sides of the Department. The Department gives all possible assistance to the Institute and has provided, furnished and equipped a theatrette in which are shown, mainly at lunch-times, 16 mm. sound films. The Institute also controls a staff library and canteen, space and fittings for both of which have been provided by the Department. The Council of the Institute works through various committees to promote sporting, social and educational amenities.

Finally, as an example of a Department which has no welfare body in the sense discussed above, there is the Department of External Affairs. There is a "Social Club" which, however, is in no way an "official" group and has no formal liaison with the "official" side of the Department. But even in cases of this nature it should be borne in mind that the staff associations are active in pressing for better staff amenities and therefore it does not follow that because there is no formally constituted staff committee to supervise welfare matters, these are left entirely to the whim of the Departmental Chief. And the Public Service Board has a staff of Welfare Officers who are responsible for supervising Departmental welfare arrangements to ensure that the Board's policy is being observed.

#### Promotion Appeal Committees

The bodies so far examined have as their primary object the improvement of general conditions of service in the widest possible sense; the remainder of this article will deal with the means by which the Federal Public Servant actually participates in departmental management, and one of the most important aspects of this is the machinery employed in the hearing of appeals against promotions.

Prior to the present Public Service Act promotions in the Australian Federal Public Service were made by the Public Service Commissioner<sup>7</sup> on the recommendation of the Permanent Head of the Department to which the officer to be promoted belonged. No right of appeal against these promotions lay at the instance of any public servant who felt he had a grievance except that, if he had information about the intended promotion before it was made, he could make some protest to the Public Service Commissioner.

When the present Public Service Act was introduced in 1922, the Permanent Head of a Department was empowered to make a promotion which, however, would be provisional only and which would be subject to an appeal to the Public Service Board; the Board delegated such appeals

to one of its Inspectors<sup>8</sup> who thereupon held an enquiry, the results of which were submitted to the Board on which lay the ultimate responsibility for any decision taken. The staff associations did not favour this system, which they regarded as an appeal "from Caesar to Caesar," and during the period 1923-43 there was considerable agitation to have the promotion appeal machinery altered.

In 1943 a Committee was appointed to investigate, *inter alia*, the system of promotion appeals and the report of this Committee recommended farreaching changes, the main one being that in each State a Promotion Appeal Committee should be established. In 1945 the Public Service Act was duly amended and it is now provided that a Promotion Appeal Committee will be constituted in each State and that such Committees will comprise:

- (a) A Chairman, to be nominated by the Public Service Board, but thereafter not to be subject to the Board or any other person acting under the Public Service Act.
- (b) An officer nominated by the Permanent Head of the Department in which the provisional promotion has been made.
- (c) An officer nominated by the staff organisation covering the class of office concerned.

In some cases a full-time Chairman has been appointed (in States where the number of Federal Public Servants is large); in other cases the Public Service Inspector for the State has been made Chairman ex officio. And for the purposes of promotion appeals work he operates quite independently of Public Service Board instructions. Practice with regard to the departmental representative varies and it is not unusual for the department's nominee to be actively interested in the promotion under appeal. Indeed, the writer has been told by at least one departmental head that the departmental representative is expected to uphold the provisional promotion made by his department unless some new facts are revealed by the Committee's proceedings which substantially alter the situation. The nominee of the staff organisation is appointed for a period of twelve months and is elected by the members of the organisation concerned.

An appellant may base his appeal on grounds of either superior efficiency or equal efficiency and seniority. The most obvious difficulty here arises in estimating "efficiency" and the statutory definition in Section 50 (4) gives little assistance: "Special qualifications and aptitude for the discharge of the duties of the office to be filled, together with merit, diligence and good conduct. . . ." It is difficult to deny that this removes no real problems and adds a few others. With regard to this thorny topic of "efficiency" it is interesting—and perhaps a little alarming—to find that under the Public Service Regulations (para. 109G) 28 types of appointment are listed in respect of which it is not necessary to promote the most efficient officer, but only the most senior efficient officer. It is true that almost all the positions specified are in the Fourth Division of the Service and are mainly manual jobs, but there is one, at least, which is in the Third Division, namely, Senior Postal Clerk, and it is difficult to view this regulation as anything but a sop to the staff associations which appear to be traditionally hostile to the subjective test of efficiency.

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of inr lie to Service (a) A The Promotion Appeal Committees exercise summary jurisdiction over posts in the lower salary scales and where the appeal is one in which officers in the same State only are concerned; in other cases the Committee sends a detailed report to the Board setting out the Committee's opinion as to the relative merits of the officers involved in the appeal. No information is given about this report or about the Committee proceedings on which it was based. In any system of "promotion appeals" there are so many intangible factors, interpretation of which depends upon the subjectivity of reporting officers, that one is tempted to suggest that although perhaps it may be good for staff morale in that it presents some show of impartiality, nevertheless its value in terms of administrative efficiency is difficult to estimate.

### Disciplinary Appeal Boards

The Public Service Act provides by Section 55 (1) that:

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the ive "An officer (other than an officer of the First or Second Division) who:

- (a) Wilfully disobeys or disregards any lawful order made or given by any person having authority to make or give the order; or
- (b) Is negligent or careless in the discharge of his duties; or
- (a) Is inefficient or incompetent through causes which appear to be within his own control; or
- (d) Uses intoxicating liquors or drugs to excess; or
- (e) Is guilty of any disgraceful or improper conduct either in his official capacity or otherwise; or
- (f) Commits any breach of the provisions of this Act or any regulations thereunder; or
- (g) Having made or subscribed an oath or affirmation in the form in the Fourth Schedule to this Act does or says anything in violation of that oath or affirmation; or
- (h) Has wilfully supplied to any officer or other person acting on behalf of the Commonwealth incorrect or misleading information in connection with his appointment to the Commonwealth Service,

shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable to such punishment as is determined upon under the provisions of this section."

The Act permits the Heads of Departments to punish these offences in certain prescribed ways, for example, by a fine or by a reduction in salary.

It is in respect of these punishments that the system of Disciplinary Appeal Boards operates and in the working of the system staff representatives play a large part.

The public servant may appeal against his punishment "on the ground of innocence . . . or excessive severity of punishment," and his appeal will lie to a Disciplinary Appeal Board, membership of which (by the Public Service Act) must consist of:

(a) An independent Chairman who must have the qualifications of a Magistrate. Ø

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- (b) An officer of the department to which the appellant belongs, who must not in any way be connected with the charge made against the appellant.
- (c) An officer representing the Public Service Division<sup>10</sup> in the State to which the appellant belongs.

The last mentioned is elected in each State every three years at an election in which all permanent public servants are entitled to vote for a State

representative of the Division to which they belong.

An Appeal Board may confirm, annul or vary the punishment given in the first instance, but it may not dismiss the appellant from the Service, although it may recommend to the Public Service Board that this be done—the latter having the power to act as it thinks fit. The Appeal Boards may summon before them any person whether or not in the Public Service whose evidence they think will assist in the determination of the appeal; they may take evidence on oath and either the appellant or the authority making the accusation may be represented by legal counsel or other agent.

### Classification Committees

Mention has been made of the system of arbitration. It should be observed, however, that the Public Service Arbitrator does not consider the salary classification of individual offices or positions. Before 1945 the Arbitrator was employed to deal with isolated cases of salary-fixing, the means adopted being known in the Service as the key position technique. This consisted of using certain selected important posts, already classified by the Arbitrator, as a yardstick in the negotiation (between the Public Service Board and the staff associations) of the individual offices it was desired to classify without reference to the Arbitrator.

In 1945 the Public Service Act was amended and provision was made for the setting-up of a Central Classification Committee, not only to alleviate the burden of the Arbitrator, but as a deliberate attempt to give staff association

representatives a direct part in the classification of individual posts.

When first established, the Committee was made up of a Chairman, appointed by the Public Service Board, an officer nominated by the permanent head of the department in which the post existed, and an officer nominated by the organisation covering the class of office to be considered. During the period 1945-50 the Committee sat almost continuously and issued a vast number of determinations; since 1950 the Committee has ceased to be a permanent one and is now established on an ad hoc basis as the need arises.

### Departmental Advisory Committees

Finally, brief mention should be made of some other ways by means of which staff participation in management is achieved in the Federal Public Service. These have been termed generically advisory, but they include the suggestions committee used in some departments to consider suggestions made by the staff on any aspect of office routine; the training committee established in some departments to plan a coherent system of in-service training and in which staff representatives play an important part; and—of more recent date and as yet rare—the management advisory committee set up with a view to giving the staff a measure of genuine participation in

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the administration of departmental matters generally. Of the last-mentioned type of body it is proposed to say a little more.

In the Department of Trade and Customs there has been established an Advisory Committee on Management, composed of five elected members of the staff with a senior member of the Personnel Branch acting as Liaison Officer between the Committee and the official side of the Department. The avowed intentions of this experiment are to give the Administration ready access to staff views on management problems and to give the staff a wider interest in the conditions under which they work. Examples of the type of topic discussed are the method of allocating annual recreation leave periods and the methods by which selections for promotion are made.

From papers shown to the writer it would appear that this Committee (which has been in operation for some two years) is functioning well and is making a definite contribution to the management of the Department. The difficult problem of staff reporting is at present being discussed by the Committee and the Administration with a view to introducing a scheme of reporting which will find favour with the staff as well as being the most satisfactory from the viewpoint of the official side.

<sup>1</sup>For a fuller discussion of this topic see my article on "Arbitration in the Federal Public Service of Australia," *Public Administration* (London), Vol. XXXIV, No. 1, Spring, 1956.

<sup>2</sup>Professor F. A. Bland, Government in Australia, Government Printer (Sydney), 1944, page xxvii.

<sup>a</sup>For example, the Arbitrator gave an interpretation of a Public Service regulation which was contrary to the way in which it had been interpreted, in one Department, for many years. It was necessary to apply this decision of the Arbitrator's retrospectively and as the statistics on the basis of which this could be accomplished were destroyed every year, the Public Service Board had no alternative but to reach a compromise with the staff association concerned as to the most reasonable means of making the retrospective adjustment.

<sup>4</sup>F. L. Hedges, "Rôle of Public Service Staff Associations in Public Administration," Public Administration (Sydney), Vol. V, No. 8, December, 1945, page 358.

<sup>5</sup>Public Service Act, Section 19A (2).

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Viz., the High Council of Public Service Unions. Not to be confused with the Joint Council, this is the central executive for a number of organisations representative of Public Service employees. It is purely a staff body formed for the purpose of coordinating union policy.

<sup>7</sup>Prior to the introduction of a Public Service Board of three, control of the Service was in the hands of a single Commissioner.

<sup>b</sup>There is, in each State, a Public Service Inspector who is the representative of the Public Service Board in that State. He has many of the powers of the Board and has a large measure of discretion.

<sup>9</sup>This is a declaration swearing allegiance to the Crown and vowing support for the Constitution of Australia.

<sup>10</sup>The Federal Public Service is divided into four Divisions: very broadly, the First Division comprises all the departmental heads; the Second Division consists of the other senior officers such as Assistant Secretaries and the like; the Third Division is made up of mainly middle range executives, professional and clerical officers; and the Fourth Division is the basic grade containing, among others, clerical assistants and manipulative workers.

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# Employer-Employee Relationships in the Civil Services of the Canadian Provinces

By Howard A. Scarrow

Mr. Scarrow is Executive Secretary of the Commonwealth Studies

Centre of Duke University, North Carolina.

The machinery governing employer-employee relationships in the Canadian civil services has increasingly become the subject of official scrutiny and interest. On the municipal, provincial, and federal level of government the growth in the number of public employees, together with the augmented strength of their associations, has focussed closer attention upon joint consultation and the solution of employee grievances. The example of Whitleyism at Whitehall, moreover, has tended to serve as a continuing reminder to Canadian governments and employees that staff relationships can be regulated with mutual benefits to both. It has been on the provincial level that many of the experiments in labour-management relations in the civil service have been tested, and where some of the most instructive developments have occurred. A survey of provincial experience, therefore, may serve to identify some of the possibilities and problems in this area of public personnel management.

### PROVINCIAL EMPLOYEE ASSOCIATIONS

Because of their limited numbers, provincial government employees have organised their respective associations on an "industrial" basis. In contrast to the multiplicity of associations in Ottawa or London, in most provinces there is only the single association whose membership is drawn from all occupational groups and departmental divisions, and which embraces both employees hired under the Civil Service Acts and those who are not, strictly speaking, civil servants. The history of several of the associations can be traced back to the 1920s or earlier, when they functioned primarily as social clubs or co-operative societies. Only in relatively recent years, and particularly since 1945, have serious attempts been made to convert the organisations into active instruments of staff representation.

### Quebec and the Eastern Provinces

Conditions favourable to this development have been confined largely to Ontario and the provinces to the west. In Quebec, Canada's second most wealthy and populous province, an unsympathetic government has effectively discouraged the two staff associations (organised in Montreal and Quebec City) from uniting, or expanding their activities beyond recreational and cultural pursuits; and statutory provision for employee representation on the Civil Service Commission has remained a dead letter. The basic outlook of Premier Duplessis is reflected in the Public Service Employee Disputes Act of 1944, which outlaws strikes in any phase of public service activity and prohibits affiliation of provincial government employees and certain other groups with organised labour.

Partly because of the very small size of the administrations, the formation of employee associations in the Maritime Provinces has lagged far behind

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the rest of Canada. Nova Scotia has remained completely immune to the trend; in New Brunswick the organisation of a new association is still in progress; and the association in Prince Edward Island, though founded in 1945, has yet to receive official encouragement as a spokesman for its membership.

Of all the provinces east of Ontario, only Newfoundland supports an association which at present can be compared with those in other parts of Canada. After the admission of Newfoundland to federation and the return of responsible government in 1949, the Employee Association was reorganised under new leadership and in 1951 affiliated with the Trades and Labour Congress (T.L.C.). It has since presented annual briefs to the Premier and has requested the establishment of machinery of joint consultation. The measure of its influence, however, is reflected in the failure to secure action on these submissions, and its lack of success is due in large measure to poor support given to the Association by eligible civil servants.

### Ontario and the Western Provinces

Employee associations in Ontario and the provinces to the west have developed in a climate which has favoured the growth of organised labour generally. The industrialisation of Canada's most populous and wealthy province has stimulated organisation of government employees in Ontario; while from Manitoba to British Columbia employee associations have been nourished in soil which, in contrast to the more conservative east, historically has produced shifting political alignments and the major reform movements in Canadian politics. The growth in the west of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (C.C.F.)—Canada's version of a socialist party—has had a particularly strong influence in fostering recognition of the right of government employees to negotiate with their employer. C.C.F. influence has been felt not only in Saskatchewan, where the party has held power since 1944, but also in neighbouring provinces where the example of Saskatchewan has not gone by unnoticed.

Favoured by this background, the provincial employee associations in Ontario and the western provinces are the strongest in Canada, and since the war have become the recognised spokesmen for their membership before the respective Governments. Each represents a substantial majority of the Civil Service, retains a paid staff, and operates on a budget proportionate to its needs. The relevant statistics are shown in the table opposite.

Beneath these similarities, however, the associations differ from one another in many vital respects. Those in British Columbia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan are affiliated with the Trades and Labour Congress and have championed the cause of the organised labour movement. Their respective leadership has held firmly to the view, though sometimes against strong internal opposition, that organised labour deserves support and that the hand of the association is strengthened if it can claim backing from other provincial labour groups. The associations in Ontario and Manitoba, in contrast, remain unaffiliated, partly because of more cautious leadership, and partly because of widespread apprehension that relationships with their respective governments would be jeopardised by identification with organised labour. It was for these reasons, for example, that the Manitoba Association

### EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS IN CIVIL SERVICES OF CANADIAN PROVINCES

### Provincial Civil Service Associations in Ontario and Western Provinces

	Membership		Annual Dues	Central Staff	Annual Budget (b)
	1946	1955			
Ontario	5,700	15,300	\$ 6.00	8	\$ 90,000
Manitoba	1,000	3,517	\$ 6.00	2	\$ 20,000
Saskatchewan (a)	3,400	4,700	\$21.00	8	\$ 98,000
Alberta	2,560	6,500	\$ 9.00	4	\$ 50,000
British Columbia	3,700	9,700	\$12.00	6	\$100,000

(a) For the Saskatchewan Civil Service Association only.

(b) Annual fixed costs of operation.

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Source: The membership statistics for 1946 are from Taylor Cole, The Canadian Bureaucracy (1949), page 208. All other figures are as of June, 1955, and are taken from the Canadian Council of Provincial Employee Associations, Minutes of the Eighth Annual Meeting (6th, 7th and 8th June, 1955), stencilled document, page 22. (The C.C.P.E.A. is a loose federation of employee organisations of Ontario and the four western provinces.)

after a close vote withdrew its two-year affiliation with the T.L.C. in 1949.

Another significant difference among the five associations, and one which colours official-staff relationships, is the composition and outlook of their membership and leadership. The nature of the British Columbia Association is reflected in the location of its headquarters in Vancouver—

Association is reflected in the location of its headquarters in Vancouver—far removed from the seat of management in Victoria—and a conscious attempt to confine the executive to lower paid employees; whereas in Manitoba and Alberta association headquarters are located in rent-free government buildings in the capital cities, membership of senior officials is not unusual, and officers are drawn more heavily from employees in the middle ranges.

Finally, the range in the quality of leadership is demonstrated by Saskatchewan, where officers of the Association have been chosen as delegates to national and international labour conventions; and Ontario, where the leadership allowed a badly divided Association to fall into near bankruptcy in 1953.

### PUBLIC EMPLOYEES AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

To a noticeably increasing extent the question of collective bargaining rights for Canadian public employees has been taken from the realm of speculation and thrust into the arena of practical politics and public discussion. Resolutions of the national and provincial labour congresses (both T.L.C. and C.C.L.) and of federal and provincial employee associations have

condemned the denial to government employees of rights guaranteed to other workers, and have urged that civil servants be granted at least a modified form of collective bargaining based on compulsory arbitration and prohibition against strike action. Other indications of the currency of this question are to be seen in the creation by the national Trades and Labour Council in 1952 of a standing committee on public employees; in the public forums of Canadian public administrators and political scientists; and in provincial legislation establishing compulsory arbitration for municipal police and firemen.

### Saskatchewan

Much of the present interest in collective bargaining for civil servants stems from the experiment which has been launched in Saskatchewan under the aegis of the C.C.F. Government. The Saskatchewan Trade Union Act, passed in 1944, specifically named the provincial government as an "employer" within the meaning of the Act, and hence one required to recognise and bargain collectively with any union of its employees certified as a legitimate bargaining unit. There are two unions of civil servants certified for bargaining purposes, the Civil Service Association (T.L.C.) and three locals of the United Civil Servants of Canada (C.C.L.). The latter groups, formed in 1944 as a result of factional strife within the Association, are confined largely to mental hospital employees; while the Civil Service Association includes nearly all other government employees save those in the Crown corporations. The only legal exclusion from Association ranks is the relatively small number of senior and professional officials (about 275 positions, or 7 per cent. of the service) whose membership would expose the Association to the charge of a company-dominated union, or over whose positions the Government wishes to retain complete control. These positions excepted, a clause in the annual agreement ensures that all new employees will join the association and all current members retain membership.

Each year a series of agreements is negotiated between the Association and the Government. The first settlement covers employees under the Civil Service Act and usually sets the pattern for subsequent agreements covering the Liquor Control Board, Workmen's Compensation Board, and (since 1949) the hourly and daily paid workers. The agreements embrace not only all matters relating to salaries and conditions, but also extend to Civil Service procedures. For example, written examinations are limited to those specifically enumerated, and the right of the Association to appoint an observer on promotion or selection panels is guaranteed. The only limitation to the scope of the agreements is Section 59 of the Civil Service Act, which guarantees that the Civil Service Commission shall have complete authority over the classification plan and job specifications; and a refusal by the Government to bargain on superannuation, which is controlled by statute.

Annual negotiations leading to the major Civil Service agreement usually extend over a period of three weeks. The Association side is composed of six or seven representative members of the Executive Board, who are accountable to the whole Board, and whose bargaining brief is based on submissions presented by the various Association branches throughout the province. On the official side, the Government is represented by the Chairman

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of the Civil Service Commission, together with appropriate assistants from the Commission and other government departments. The Commission Chairman, too, is only a bargaining representative, and any concession or agreement is subject to Cabinet approval. On one occasion, when agreement could not be reached, an open dispute was avoided when the Cabinet agreed to meet with the Association representatives to iron out remaining differences. It is, of course, this final stage of the bargaining process which brings to the surface the unique position of Saskatchewan civil servants. The Association of the Government can turn to the provisions of the Trade Union Act which call for the creation of a board of conciliation or, if the parties agree, a board of arbitration. This failing, the Association has as its ultimate weapon strike action.

In addition to the bargaining process, employees are allowed recourse to formal grievance machinery. Each annual agreement contains provision for a joint council which hears classification appeals from individual employees (i.e., an appeal against an alleged improper salary classification of the officer's position). The council, made up of representatives of the Association, the Government, and a chairman mutually acceptable to both parties, has power to recommend, and in some cases issue final directives. Usually, however, appeals are resolved by the Civil Service Commission, and only a small portion ever reach the council. Of greater importance is the procedure for settling grievances affecting groups of employees. If satisfaction cannot be obtained through the department or the Civil Service Commission, the Association may request the formation of a three-member joint council which can recommend action to the Cabinet; or as a final resort can ask for a special board of arbitration.<sup>4</sup>

There is little doubt that the experiment in Saskatchewan has been eminently successful in providing a sound basis for a generally harmonious employer-employee relationship. The Government, though like most employers reluctant to grant salary increases and other concessions, has shown no disposition to abandon the scheme, and statements of opposition parties have suggested that a new Government would continue it. On its part, the Association is keenly aware that it enjoys a status seldom granted to civil servants, and that largely in consequence its members possess benefits which compare favourably with those of other provinces. Yet the most instructive result of the Saskatchewan experience is the manner in which the bargaining process has operated. Although civil servants are legally free to strike in support of their demands, they are realistically aware that public opinion would not tolerate such action; and while machinery for conciliation and arbitration is available, both sides have recognised that it should be used only as an unfortunate last resort. Thus on only two occasions has the signing of the annual agreement been preceded by the appointment of a conciliation board; all other matters have been settled through persistent negotiation.

What distinguishes the Saskatchewan experiment, then, is not a compulsion upon the Government to yield to Association demands—a fact which is evident in the list of outstanding grievances—but rather the legal necessity for the Government to negotiate in good faith with its employees. The right of collective bargaining is the right of the Association to present argu-

ments to the Government in the knowledge that they cannot be dismissed with impunity; or to quote a favourite phrase of Association officials, it is the right to approach the Government without carrying "cap in hand." What is involved is as much a question of dignity and pride as of economics.

Finally, it is apparent that the successful functioning of the bargaining process depends upon much more than the provisions of the Trade Union Act. Both sides, aware that they are charting new ground, have an interest in making the experiment work. They know that the eyes of public servants and officials across Canada are focussed on the results of their experience. The Association has been careful to avoid actions which would brand it as a militant union, or to insist upon demands which would embarrass the Government. Officials on both sides, moreover, are eminently qualified, regard each other with mutual respect, and participate in continual joint discussions throughout the year. Finally, the collective bargaining process is conducted against a background of Civil Service administration which, for its conscious adoption of modern methods of personnel management, is perhaps the most advanced in Canada.

### Other Provinces

In the other Canadian provinces Governments of more conservative leanings than the C.C.F. have consistently refused to grant bargaining rights to their employees. The legal prohibition rests either on the Statute Interpretation Act, which exempts the Government from the provisions of its own legislation (i.e., the Labour Relations Act), or in some provinces upon a specific clause in the Labour Relations Act which in effect excludes the Government from the meaning of the term employer.

These provisions notwithstanding, the legal status of civil servants is by no means clearly defined; for the provincial Governments, like the Federal Government, do in fact recognise for bargaining purposes the unions in the Crown corporations, e.g., the Electric Power Commissions. New Brunswick, which has amended its Labour Relations Act to reflect this current practice, is the exception to this legal uncertainty. Following a threatened strike by the New Brunswick electric power workers, and in the wake of an election campaign in which the question of the recognition of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (I.B.E.W.) was one of the major issues, a newly-elected Conservative Government in 1953 amended the Labour Relations Act to include within the meaning of "employer" any public "corporation, board, or commission" so designated by the Government. In other provinces recognition of electrical unions appears to result more from practical than legal necessity.

The blurred legal position is further illustrated by the example of employees in another type of provincial commercial enterprise, the Liquor Control Boards. In 1951 a certified union attempted to organise the truck drivers of the Ontario Liquor Control Board, only to be told by the Premier that these employees were civil servants. On what legal grounds the Premier based his decision was never clearly defined. In British Columbia, too, the question of collective bargaining for employees of the Liquor Control Board remains an open question, and is being subjected to careful scrutiny.

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the Governments shattered by precedent, the employee associations from Ontario westward have come to view collective bargaining as an increasingly attractive goal. Rather than striving for complete equality with other unions, the associations are ready to forfeit the right to strike in return for compulsory arbitration. Nowhere has the campaign for arbitration been more consistently waged than in British Columbia, where the position of the Association is supported not only by the precedent of arbitration rights for school teachers, policemen, and firemen, but also has been strengthened by the report of a special legislative committee which recommended in 1952 that these rights be extended to civil servants. In reply, however, the Government has adopted the familiar position that it cannot surrender sovereignty to an independent arbitration board.

### JOINT CONSULTATION

The quest for collective bargaining rights has usually taken on intensive proportions only when the results of existing machinery of employer-employee consultation have, in the eyes of the associations, proved disappointing. The most prominent feature of this machinery has been the joint councils, modelled after the Whitley Councils in Great Britain, which since 1944 have been established in Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, and British Columbia.

The Joint Council in Ontario was established by Order-in-Council in May, 1944, to "study and consider" matters pertaining to the civil service and to make appropriate recommendations to the Cabinet. The Council consists of seven members, three appointed by the Government, three appointed by the Civil Service Association, and a chairman, who is the Civil Service Commissioner. In practice the official side has been composed of civil servants of Deputy Minister rank (i.e., Permanent Secretaries in British terminology), and the staff side made up of officers of the Association. In addition to the central Joint Council, provision was made for departmental and branch councils to deal with problems confined to a single department and also to make recommendations to the Joint Council in matters affecting the entire service. These sub-councils have generally been composed of three senior officials and three representatives elected by the departmental staff. The Association is assigned no official rôle in their operations.

The Joint Council in Alberta was clearly defined in an amendment to the Civil Service Act in 1954. The amendment outlines a constitution which is the most explicit of any province, and reflects the pressure by the Association to remedy shortcomings of the council which had been meeting since 1947. The Council is composed of three Cabinet Ministers and three nominees of the Association, while the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission and the Executive Secretary of the Association are invited to attend each meeting. The Council is required to meet once a month to consider all grievances and requests submitted by the Association, to make recommendations to the Cabinet or departmental heads, and to act as a board of appeal for all cases of alleged improper classification or unjust dismissal. Since 1947 the Association in Alberta has also appointed one of its members as part-time Civil Service Commissioner.

Unlike the councils already described, those in British Columbia and

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Manitoba rest on no clear authority. The British Columbia Civil Service Act (1945) simply requires that the Government recognise a committee of Association representatives to discuss matters affecting "general welfare and conditions of employment." Until 1949 this provision was satisfied by periodic meetings with the full Cabinet; then, on the request of the Association, a committee was formed composed of three Association representatives and three Cabinet Ministers. Another provision of the Act allows the Association to present grievances to the Civil Service Commission, with final appeal to the Cabinet or a board of reference appointed by the Cabinet.

Manitoba was the last of the western provinces to establish a joint council. In response to Association requests the Government agreed in 1951 to form a committee composed of three Ministers, three Association nominees, and the full-time Civil Service Commissioner. However, this concession was

confirmed neither by statute nor by Order-in-Council.

### Ontario

A decade of experience with joint councils in Ontario has not justified the initial hopes for their success. It might be argued that the councils have precipitated more problems than they have solved; and that because suggestions for their improvement have been rejected by the Government,

employer-employee relationships have actually deteriorated.

The basic complaint voiced by the Association is that the Joint Council lacks authority. Not only is the intended function of the Council limited to the submission of recommendations to Cabinet, but, the Association complains, its authority to discuss and to recommend has been curtailed by a reluctance of the official side—composed of loyal civil servants—to entertain grievances which might reflect upon Government policy. If necessary, the majority of official side representatives can ensure that this prohibition is enforced. Once a recommendation has been submitted, moreover, there is no guarantee that action will be forthcoming. Finally, the Association has objected to the infrequent meetings (separated by periods as long as a year) and to the lack of time and interest devoted to the Council by the Government members.

Not unrelated to the disappointing results of the central Joint Council has been the acknowledged failure of the departmental and branch councils. Indeed, according to the Association, the major factor which has hampered the staff side of the Joint Advisory Council has been the failure of departmental councils to submit problems of a service-wide nature; for the official side tends towards the attitude that grievances are real only if they are referred initially to a departmental council. After a brief period of hopeful interest, these sub-councils have become rusty from disuse, and a continual point of contention has been the question of responsibility for their operation. On the one hand, the official side of the Joint Council has taken the view that responsibility rests with the Association; that if the councils are not functioning properly it is no fault of the Government or its representatives. The Association, on the other hand, has argued that since it is given no authority to appoint members of the staff side of the sub-councils or to call for regular meetings, responsibility rests ultimately with the Government. The Association, therefore, has urged that authoritative instructions be rice

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issued to the departments directing that regular meetings of the councils be called and that competent, interested, and senior official representatives be appointed. Meanwhile, the Association has begun to experiment with special committees made up of interested Association members within a department, in hope that these might be used to present grievances before the Deputy Minister or, where they exist, personnel officers or the departmental councils.

In an effort to clarify responsibility for the sub-councils, the Joint Advisory Council early in 1955 resolved that the Association "be encouraged to actively assist" in their "development and operation" and that regular meetings be held. The resolution did not, however, grant the Association additional authority; and after a trial period of two months in which little progress was noted the Executive of the Association countered with a resolution withdrawing its offer of co-operation and expressing "no confidence in the Joint Advisory Council or any of the bodies under its jurisdiction."

While the demise of the system of joint councils in Ontario can be attributed in part to the mechanical defects in its structure, the basic difficulty would appear to lie much deeper. For its part, the Association has been unable to present a united front. It has been sharply divided on many questions, and was recently plagued by a financial crisis and the consequent disillusionment of many of its members. The latest example of internal strife was a message sent to the Government by a local branch of the Association condemning the Executive for its resolution on the Joint Advisory Council. It is apparent, moreover, that despite its substantial membership the Association does not enjoy the support of all civil servants, and that many middle-range employees and most senior officers are reluctant to join in common cause with the lower-paid workers.

Perhaps the most formidable obstacle impeding the operation of the Joint Council is the wide decentralisation of personnel administration. The Civil Service Commission is in a position of only limited authority; it makes suggestions but is unable to enforce their acceptance by departments. The Council therefore lacks the necessary machinery to issue authoritative directives and many employee grievances can be settled only at the department Seen in this light the importance of the departmental councils and the significance of their failure is clear. Recently the Association has come to recognise the roots of its discontent. Its first major brief presented to the Government in 1953 was devoted almost in its entirety to arguments for an independent survey of the Civil Service, the creation of an authoritative Civil Service Commission, and the institution of standardised procedures of recruitment, promotion, and classification. A similar memorandum was submitted in early 1956. Meanwhile, the Association is reassessing its policy of non-affiliation with organised labour and is cautiously exploring tactics to win public support for its objectives.

### British Columbia

Until 1952 the Association in British Columbia made use of the provisions of the Civil Service Act to present its briefs and discuss its grievances with the Cabinet, the Cabinet-Association Committee, or the Civil Service Commission. Partly as a result, civil servants enjoyed the benefits of modern

personnel administration and conditions which were among the best in Canada. Within recent years, however, employer-employee relationships have been the most rancorous of any province, and all semblance of organised

machinery for joint consultation has virtually disappeared.

The fires of controversy have centred around the Association's demand for arbitration rights and, equally important, the use by the Association of the recognised techniques of group political action. Prior to the 1952 election the Association canvassed the candidates of all political parties to learn their views on arbitration. Subsequently, following the refusal of the newly-elected Social Credit Government to endorse the pre-election sentiments expressed by a majority of its Cabinet members, Association tactics were expanded to include a \$10,000 radio and press campaign, active solicitation of trade union support, and the drafting of an arbitration bill for introduction by a private member. Under any circumstance these vigorous tactics would probably have been interpreted as acts hostile to the Government; coinciding with a new election in 1953, they were viewed by the re-elected Social Credit Government as part of an organised campaign for its defeat at the polls. Further incidents and inflammatory public statements on both sides added to the ill-feeling.

Amidst this hostile setting the machinery of joint consultation has proved ineffective. The Government has refused to re-establish the Association-Cabinet Committee which the Association regards as the first step toward effective negotiating procedure. Association representatives continue to meet with officials of the Civil Service Commission, but the resulting recommendations have suffered a high rate of rejection, and a board of reference has yet to be appointed. Finally, it was only after 18 months of inactivity and the intervention by the Vice-President of the British Columbia Trades and Labour Congress that the Cabinet agreed to meet with the Association; and though subsequent meetings have been held, their nature is reflected in the Government's statement that the Association may present, but not argue, its case, and that the unacknowledgment of written submissions

is tantamount to their rejection.

Recent evidence would indicate that the period of extreme bitterness is yielding to more sober reflection. The Association has de-emphasised its insistence on arbitration and instead is looking toward the solution of immediate grievances; while the Government's decision to grant general salary increases for 1956, the first since 1952, is likely to contribute to more amicable relationships.

### Manitoba and Alberta

In contrast to Ontario and British Columbia, the Government and Association in both Manitoba and Alberta have progressed toward more co-operative harmonious relationships. Basic to this accomplishment has been the more inclusive representation in Association membership, together with more cautious leadership. In Manitoba, for example, progress can be measured only since 1949 when the Association disaffiliated from the T.I..C., a new set of officers was elected, and a respected civil servant was granted leave of absence to replace a strong labour advocate as Executive Secretary.

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On this foundation the machinery of joint consultation has proved valuable within a limited sphere. Unlike the Joint Council in Ontario, the councils in the two Prairie Provinces allow the Association representatives to meet with Cabinet Ministers for frank and informal discussions. No votes are taken or minutes recorded. The presence at the meetings of the Association Executive Secretary further adds to their effectiveness. To supplement the councils, moreover, periodic meetings are held with the full Cabinet or the Provincial Secretary, 10 and cordial relationships with the Civil Service Commission provide an additional outlet for staff grievances. In Alberta, not only does the Association nominate one of its members as part-time Civil Service Commissioner, but the full-time Commissioner is a former officer of the Association. Finally, Association representation on classification appeal boards offers a solution to many individual complaints. 11

Despite encouraging trends, however, the councils have been the object of strong criticism. The most common complaint has been the infrequency of council meetings, which until recently averaged only three or four a year. Association pressure resulted in the 1954 amendment to the Alberta Civil Service Act which requires monthly council meetings, and in Manitoba led to the Government pledge for a minimum of eight meetings a year beginning in 1955. A more serious grievance has been that in important matters affecting employees, particularly salary scales, the Government has taken unilateral action, without first presenting the decision to the council Alberta, and in 1952 precipitated a strong resolution calling for arbitration rights. Because the authority of the Alberta Civil Service Commission is severely limited, the Association representative on the Commission has yet to prove his worth in influencing policy on these questions.

#### CONCLUSION

Provincial experience has suggested some of the difficulties of transplanting Whitleyism outside its native environment. The organisation of civil servants into one big union has tended to discourage active support by professional and higher-ranking employees, with the result that the joint councils have been viewed primarily as forums for the middle-range and lower-paid staff. Concurrently, the respective Governments are inclined to tolerate the associations—to ignore them would be politically unwise—but to leave to them the initiative of joint consultation. Thus the councils have largely become outlets for staff grievances, and their potentiality as a means for co-operative discussion of mutual problems has yet to be explored.

In these circumstances it has been found impossible to duplicate the spirit which underlies British Whitleyism, and without it the councils by themselves are poor vehicles for negotiation. The failure to transplant the system of arbitration, which complements the British Whitley Councils, has forced the Associations to rely solely on their powers of persuasion, and ultimately questions are settled by unilateral decision. On certain matters, such as retirement age, calculation of pensions, and other fringe benefits, the Governments have in time responded favourably to association requests; but the more basic grievances, especially those concerning re-

muneration, have usually gone unanswered.

### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Against this background joint councils are necessarily delicate mechanisms which rest precariously on the willingness of the official side to listen sympathetically to association grievances, and the corresponding ability of the Association to swallow its disappointments. These conditions fulfilled, the councils appear to function most successfully when the official side is of Cabinet rank<sup>12</sup>; meetings are complemented by periodic representation before full Cabinet or the Provincial Secretary; and there exists a foundation of sound personnel administration.

The future of official-staff relationships in Canada seems likely to revolve around the question of collective bargaining or compulsory arbitration. The examples of Great Britain, Saskatchewan, federal and provincial Crown corporations, and Canadian municipalities are now too numerous to be overlooked, and the old arguments of surrender of sovereignty have come to ring hollow. There is some evidence that the Federal Government, in response to increasing pressure by organised labour and associations of its own employees, is reassessing its position on arbitration. Should it reverse its stand, civil servants in the provinces are not likely to allow their Governments to forget the example.

<sup>1</sup>Until their amalgamation in 1956, the two major labour organisations in Canada were the Trades and Labour Congress and the Canadian Congress of Labour (C.C.L.), They were the Canadian equivalents to the American A.F. of L. and C.I.O., respectively. Future references in this article to the T.L.C. or C.C.L. are intended to reflect existing conditions prior to the recent amalgamation.

<sup>2</sup>See, for example, Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Conference, the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (1953), pages 53-89; and Victor Johnston, "The Effectiveness of Staff Associations in Employer-Employee Relations in the Public Service of Canada," The Civil Service Review (June, 1955), pages 156 ff.

<sup>3</sup>See S. J. Frankel and R. C. Pratt, *Municipal Labour Relations in Canada* (Montreal, n.d., 1954?).

<sup>4</sup>The agreement signed in 1955 was the first to provide for arbitration of grievances. Previous agreements had allowed only the appointment of a conciliation board.

<sup>5</sup>The Federal Government similarly amended its labour legislation in 1948.

<sup>6</sup>Report of Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Inquiry Board (Victoria, 1952).

<sup>7</sup>It was also in May, 1944, that the National Joint Council was established in Ottawa.

<sup>8</sup>The Trillium, official publication of the Ontario Civil Service Association (October, 955), pages 8-9.

<sup>9</sup>According to the Association, 11 of the 28 Social Credit candidates elected had expressed themselves in favour of arbitration. Six of the 11 constituted a majority of the Cabinet.

<sup>10</sup>In the Canadian provinces the Civil Service Commission usually reports to the Provincial Secretary.

<sup>11</sup>The appeal procedure in Manitoba has been operating only since 1955. In Alberta the Joint Council now serves as the appeal board, although from 1947 to 1954 the three-member Civil Service Commission acted in this capacity.

<sup>12</sup>In July, 1956, Premier Frost of Ontario finally agreed to appoint a six-member Cabinet Committee to meet regularly with the Joint Advisory Council. Perhaps this concession was not unrelated to the forthcoming vote by Association members on the question of affiliation with organised labour.

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### Delegation in Local Government

By John A. Chatterton

The Clerk of Leicestershire County Council reviews a recent study of delegation by Dr. Richards of the University of Southampton.

As the sub-title of his book\* indicates, Dr. Richards is concerned with delegation by County Councils to County District Councils, a subject which is somewhat restricted but nevertheless important. He has handled

his subject well and produced a readable and useful book.

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his he Delegation in the past has, on the whole, played a limited rôle in local government. It has to be considered against the wider background of the complete range of local government functions exercised by particular authorities and the form of local government itself. The topic has excited considerable controversy, and is one on which few of those directly concerned with local government administration will not already have their own views. Even if the present work does not change those views, this survey of delegation by one looking in on local government from outside will be of general interest.

Dr. Richards sees the delegation provisions of certain modern statutes as a result of the tendency to concentrate local government administration in the hands of County Councils, which concentration he regards as largely the result of past failure to reform the structure of local government. He traces the history of post-war steps towards reform as far as the announcement by the Minister of Housing and Local Government in the Commons in March, 1955, that certain proposals had been agreed between the Local More recently the Government has issued its Authority Associations. White Paper on the Areas and Status of Local Authorities, on which two comments can usefully be made at this point. First, the Government concludes that there is no convincing case for radical alteration in the existing form of local government, and second, whilst Dr. Richards justifiably concludes from the Minister's announcement that form and functions of local government were to be considered together, the White Paper in fact is concerned only with form. It is nevertheless to be hoped that any resulting legislation will deal with both at the same time.

About one half of the book is a review of delegation in four services, one chapter to each. The four services are highways, where the machinery of delegation is contained in the Local Government Act, 1929, and is therefore of comparatively long standing, education, town and country planning, and civil defence, where the relevant statutes date only from the end of the last war or even later. It should be noted that certain highway and civil defence functions are conferred direct on District Councils, whereas education

and planning are vested solely in the County Council.

According to its nature and population, a District Council may carry out highway functions in three ways: by direct conferment by statute; as a claiming authority; and by delegation. Dr. Richards sets out the advantages claimed for delegation: consultation with local interests;

<sup>\*</sup>Delegation in Local Government by Peter G. Richards. George Allen and Unwin, 1956. Pp. 184. 20s.

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avoidance of duplication; benefits to District Councils in obtaining qualified staff and better equipment; and quicker availability of staff in an emergency. He comments that delegation may make a real contribution to the capacity of a district to provide other services in a more efficient and economical manner, but finds an overwhelming case against delegation of highway powers because of the need for a large organisation to obtain the full advantages of mechanisation, bulk purchase and employment of specialist staff. "Nowhere can [delegation] be shown to be more efficient or economical

than direct county administration."

The survey of delegation in education deals with the Divisional Executive and the "excepted district," the latter a special edition of the former with the distinction that it can draft its own scheme of delegation after consultation with the County and that it is a single County District, the staff of whose Council is able to do much of the work. Difficulties which have arisen in the working of schemes of divisional administration are considered. It is questionable how details of the budget, except possibly for isolated items, could remain unsettled until well into the financial year when the county budget must be determined by about February. As for the complaint that Divisional Executives have to begin preparation of their estimates early in the autumn, this must be regarded as an incident of local government in general rather than of divisional administration, since the committees of the County Council are in the same position. Dr. Richards stresses that the difficulties which have arisen in divisional administration do not typify the normal working of delegation agreements which is carried out in an atmosphere of goodwill, give-and-take and general co-operation. One comment which he makes in this chapter is worthy of quotation for in it lies the key to any system of delegation: "The success or failure, value or futility, of any delegation scheme depends not merely upon the content of the legal phraseology, but upon the quality and attitudes of those who have to work it."

It should perhaps be said that the case of Lamb v. Jeffries (mentioned on page 73) did not establish any general principle that teachers employed by the County Council cannot be members of the Council of the "excepted district" in which they work. It is clear from the decision in the Queen's Bench Division on the appeal by case stated that the point in issue was whether Mr. Lemb's appointment was in the disposal of the District Council. It was so held because under the scheme of divisional administration and the relative articles of government his appointment was subject to confirmation

by the Divisional Executive.

Turning next to town and country planning, Dr. Richards says that the transfer of planning responsibilities to the Counties was supported by a mass of evidence notably directed to the need for larger areas for planning purposes. He remarks that though the continued responsibility of the County Council for the preparation of development plans is unquestionable, by sharing the control of development with District Councils the County is able to utilise local knowledge, opinion and experience, to decentralise and to employ its own staff on major questions of policy. He reviews the organisation in individual counties, showing that the system employed ranges between centralisation, decentralisation and delegation (which he regards as more satisfactory than decentralisation) or a combination of them and that

delegation plays a part in the majority of Counties. The information given is of less value because of its lack of detail; it is important, for example, to know the precise extent of delegation. Dr. Richards concludes that the cause of planning is greatly assisted by the technique of delegation for no system of local government in rural areas can produce a type of authority which is suitable both to frame an overall development plan and to apply it to every minor case.

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The chapter on civil defence notes the general principle applied in the distribution of functions: each public authority shall undertake the range of civil defence functions that is analogous to its normal peace-time activities. This means that County District Councils are directly responsible for certain of these functions. In addition the County Districts may have delegated to them part of the civil defence functions of the County Councils. After reviewing the present arrangements, Dr. Richards feels that the argument for decentralisation may have been pushed too far and that, with the current trend in an age of nuclear weapons to emphasise the need for the organisation of civil defence on a national basis, the extent of delegation is more likely to diminish than to grow.

The only comment which appears necessary on his treatment of the miscellaneous delegation provisions is in relation to the tendency in recent years for counties to cease delegating to the Justices the powers to license theatres and cinemas. Dr. Richards notes that it is the Justices and not the Districts that have lost these delegated powers and goes on to say that the Justices, not being an elected body, are less able to make effective protest. Surely the real reason for this change is quite different, outside the delegation controversy, and lies in a growing realisation of the difficulties of a purely judicial body in dealing with matters of this kind on which the advice of technical staff is required? Justices are not likely to regret the loss of powers

which date from a time when conditions were very different.

In his final chapter, Dr. Richards deals with the administrative problems of delegation, noting the two basic conditions which always apply: that the County Council retains the right to decide major questions of policy, and to control expenditure. He also sets out the principles of delegation as stated by the Local Government Manpower Committee. He recognises the importance to an assessment of the value of delegation, of knowing its financial implications and accepts that delegation must increase expense, but he suggests that although it makes local administration more complicated and more expensive it may be thought worth while if it increases the limited public interest and participation in local government. Dr. Richards sees disadvantages in the centralisation of local government in the hands of the County Councils, in the conferment of major services on District Councils and in the use of delegation, and acknowledges that there is no fully satisfactory solution to the problem. He regards the case for delegation as strongest where the human element in the service is important, e.g., education, and as weakest in highways, where technical considerations are paramount. The aim of delegation arrangements is said to be the combination of local opinion and local knowledge with the resources which only a large area can provide. The author suggests that the difficulties which must occasionally arise attract more attention than normal routine working and are not necessarily

due to any defect in the arrangements themselves. His final comment is that the great merit of the British system of local government is that the elected representative has detailed control over executive action: delegation serves to stimulate public discussion and thereby to strengthen the democratic content of local administration.

The controversial nature of the subject makes it difficult to embark on comment without inviting accusations of partiality. Yet some comment seems to be called for purely by way of placing certain aspects of delegation

in their proper perspective.

It is necessary to reiterate that delegation as a whole has to be considered against the wider background of the general pattern of local government. It cannot be treated in isolation and for that reason this book will be far more easily understood by the reader who knows the working of our local

government system.

Although both District Councils and County Councils are elected bodies, there is a tendency in some quarters to regard County Councils as remote bodies out of touch with local conditions. As a consequence the advantage frequently claimed for delegation is greater consultation with local opinion and use of local knowledge. In judging the weight to be attached to that claim, it is necessary to remember that quite apart from the local knowledge and opinion which comes to the County Council through members co-opted from District Councils and, in rural districts, through those small but useful bodies the Parish Councils, the elected members of the County Councils themselves come from all parts of the County and in addition in many cases are also members of their local District Council. Furthermore the area staff frequently employed by County Councils make a substantial contribution to knowledge of local conditions. Moreover, though it is clearly important that the public should have some place within reach where they can go to discuss their individual problems, it is perhaps of little importance to the individual wanting, say, a home help whether he has to seek information at the office of his District Council or at the area office of the County Council. In the very personal problems which arise in the case of certain services, too much local knowledge may be a disadvantage; for the public may prefer to have their problems considered by the more remote and impersonal County Council rather than by their local Council. This is perhaps a field where the elected representatives should concentrate on matters of policy, leaving their officers to handle the application of that policy to individual cases.

There is no doubt that in recent years the transfer of functions to County Councils, coupled in some cases with the effects of nationalisation, has eriously weakened the District Councils whose wish for delegation is therefore quite understandable. Bearing in mind the endorsement by the White Paper of the broad objective that the aim of all alterations in the status and boundaries of Local Authorities should be to ensure effective and convenient units of local government administration, it is to be expected that the reviews which will take place on the implementation of the Government's proposals will help to remove that weakness. It is equally to be expected from the proposals agreed between the representatives of the five Local Authority Associations that in appropriate cases delegation will help to increase the range of functions exercised by District Councils. The degree of delegation

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may vary widely according to the widely differing circumstances of particular areas, but in so far as local government at all levels exists for the benefit of the public it is to be hoped that the aim in each area will be to develop those arrangements which are most suitable for that area. Whilst there may be agreement on the aim, however, there may be less unanimity on what the most suitable arrangements are.

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Dr. Richards has tackled a difficult subject which seems bound to present even more difficulty to one not actively engaged in local government administration. In his very thorough treatment of the subject, however, he has done much to overcome that difficulty and has always endeavoured to present a balanced picture. Some will agree and some disagree with his conclusions. In local government itself, where decided views on the subject are frequently held, it is probable that the majority will agree with him in part, though not always the same part. He is to be congratulated on the very considerable research which he has undertaken and on the mass of information which he has sifted. The few minor inaccuracies do not detract from the essential purpose of his work, which will provide a useful source of information and should serve to stimulate discussion at a time when, with reform in the air, delegation is very much in the forefront of attention.

### CONTENTS LIST

A contents list for *Public Administration*, Vol. XXXIV (1956), is available on request to the Royal Institute of Public Administration, Haldane House, 76A New Cavendish Street, London, W.1 (LANgham 8881).

### INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

The quarterly journal of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, which has been published since 1928, has now been merged with Progress in Public Administration, a bi-monthly review of technical co-operation issued by the International Institute since 1953. The new quarterly, which bears the title International Review of Administrative Sciences, appears separately in English, French and Spanish editions. Its authoritative articles, news items and book reviews provide a valuable source of information on administrative activities and ideas throughout the world. The annual subscription is £2 17s. 6d. Payment from the United Kingdom should be made to the Royal Institute of Public Administration.

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### INSTITUTE NEWS

### About Members

SEVERAL members of the Institute were honoured in the New Year's List. Among them were Sir Edward Bridges, a Vice-President of the Institute since 1946, on whom a Barony was conferred; it was subsequently gazetted in the name, style and title of Baron Bridges of Headley in the County of Surrey, and of St. Nicholas Wade in the County of Kent. Mr. J. R. Simpson, one of the Institute's Trustees, was created a Knight Bachelor. Mr. F. G. Brewer, Secretary of The Gas Council and since 1951 a member of the Institute's Executive Council, was awarded the O.B.E.

Mr. S. E. Raymond, a member of the Executive Council, has been appointed Commercial Manager of British Railways, Scottish Region.

## Conference on Hospital Authorities and Staff Management

A conference under this title will be held from 20th-22nd May at the Royal Empire Society, Northumberland Avenue, London, W.C.2, and will be presided over by Mr. Henry Lesser, C.B.E. The subjects and principal speakers will be as follows:

The Staff Functions of Minister, Boards and Management Committees by A. J. Bennett.

Staff Management in the Hospital by G. A. Phalp, T.D.

Staff Turnover-Its Causes and Remedies by Professor R. W. Revans.

Training and Career Opportunity by R. Moore.

Relations between Staff and Management—An Industrial Approach by G. P. E. Howard.

### New Books

THE lectures delivered in London in the Spring of last year by Herbert Morrison, Basil Smallpeice, Sir Alexander Fleck, Sir Wilfred Neden, A. D. Bonham-Carter and Major-General G. M. Russell have now been published under the title *Vitality in Administration* at the price of 8s. 6d. (6s. post free to members ordering from the Institute). The symposium describes the methods by which public authorities and business concerns ensure that vitality is achieved and maintained in their organisation. The wide range of experience of the contributors lends particular interest to the book.

Interviewing for the Selection of Staff, which was published in April of last year, has met with such a demand that a reprint has already been called for. The book forms a guide for the laymen in preparing interviews and drawing the proper conclusions from the information which they provide. It also contains advice for candidates being interviewed. The price of the book is 10s. 6d. (7s. 6d. post free to members ordering from the Institute).

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### I.I.A.S. Round Table in Yugoslavia

THE next Round Table of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences will be held in June at Opitaja in Yugoslavia. The main subjects for discussion will be "Present Trends in Connection with the Transfer of Power from Greater Authorities to Lesser Authorities separate from them, and vice versa," "Automation and the Relevant Problems in Public Administration Agencies," and "The Merit System as applied to the Promotion of Civil Servants, with Special Emphasis on Rating." Further details will be sent on application, from Haldane House.

### Earlier Publications Required

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ALTHOUGH the publications listed below have been out of print for some time, the Institute still receives orders for them. It would therefore be glad to purchase unwanted copies from members at the prices shown in brackets.

Local Authorities: Internal Financial Control by A. H. Marshall (10s. 6d.)
The Public Corporation in British Experience by Sir Arthur Street (2s. 6d.)

### Back Numbers of Journals Required

THE Institute has recently received a large number of orders for back numbers, and stocks of certain issues are now very low. For the numbers shown below the Institute will pay the following prices:

1923-1	1929	 all issues	 • •	10s. issue
1930		 April, July	 )	
1931		 July	 	
1932		 January, October	 	10 .
1934		 July	 }	10s. issue
1935		 April	 	
1938		 January	 	
1940		 April, October	 )	
1942		 January, April	 	
1943		 January	 	
1944		 Summer, Winter	[	5s. issue
1945		 Spring, Winter	 	
1946		 Spring	 	
1952		 Summer	 7	
1955		 Summer, Winter	 }	3s. issue
1955		 Index	 	1s.

### New Research Projects

THE Nuffield Foundation has generously agreed to make a grant of up to £4,500 for a research project on "The Organisation of Building Construction and Maintenance in Local Authorities," and work will soon start. Plans are now in hand for a study of "Committee Systems in the Hospital Service."

### BOOK REVIEWS

### New Sources of Local Revenue

Report of a Study Group of the Royal Institute of Public Administration (Chairman: Mr. F. A. Cockfield). Published for the Institute by George Allen and Unwin, 1956, Pp. 249. 25s.

So there is hope for the Town Hall yet. Over the last forty years the proportion of Local Authorities' expenditure in England and Wales covered from their own revenue has slipped from 78 per cent. to 58 per cent. Rents and fees (especially rents) have gone up handsomely. But rates have fallen into disrepute as regressive and unworthy to be a pillar of the Welfare State. It has been a case of giving the dog a bad name and hanging him, for rates are not in fact as regressive as some of the Central Government taxes which have been expanding merrily in these years, and could pre-sumably be cut if grants to Local Authorities could be brought down. But hanged he has well and truly been. In 1953-54, at constant prices, only 85-90 per cent. as much was spent from the rates as in 1938. And with this decline in local taxation has gone, though not for that reason alone, a fall in the reputation and authority of local government itself.

Now along comes an authoritative Study Group of the Institute with welcome proposals to put this right. Entertainments tax, motor vehicle duties, and driving licence fees should be transferred from the central to local government, subject to certain limits on the rates of tax to be imposed. This would add upwards of £120,000,000 a year to local resources. Counties and county boroughs should be allowed to raise a local income tax, which at, say, 3d. in the £ would contribute £150,000,000. There might also be a local tax on petrol, assuming that national policy leaves us any petrol to tax; but on this the Study Group prefer to leave the decision open. Industry and agriculture should be re-rated; the last is specially important, as helping a number of counties to which the other proposals would give rather little.

Let us assume for the moment that there is to be no major change in the combined spending of central and local government, nor in the sources from which it is raised. On that basis, the Group have done a

workmanlike job. They face the difficulties frankly, with a wealth of comparative material from other countries. The poorer counties will feel that they are once again left out. Entertainers will probably like the local scorpions even less than the more predictable whips of Whitehall. (I wonder, by the way, if the Study Group thought of the devilish temptation they are putting in the way of Councils in my part of the world who lack rateable value but also disapprove of Sunday opening?) Company profits and some of the other new sources of revenue will be hard to distribute fairly between authorities. And the income tax scheme contains, and I think is bound to contain, a number of anomalies and irritations.

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Wages and salaries, for instance, are to be taxed by a simple, flat-rate deduction from pay-rolls, without gradation or allowance for size of family. That is sensible, seeing the low rate of tax proposed. happened to spend last spring in the State of Indiana, which has just such a tax. What drew my attention to it was the loud and heart-felt complaints of my married and low-salary colleagues, round coffee in the Faculty Club, of its unfairness as compared to the more carefully graded Federal tax. In matters of taxation we are like the princess with the pea under her mattress; it does not take a big pea to keep us awake. Nor will people like having to make special individual returns for local tax as well as to the Inland Revenue, as professional men, business owners, companies, and receivers of investment and miscellaneous income of over £100 a year will have to do. The Inland Revenue remind me of my duties, like the Catholic Church, at Easter or thereabouts, and return to be the skeleton at the Christmas feast. What they take off me in this way is only a fraction of what goes in P.A.Y.E., but how much more it hurts!

But I hope that discussion will not bog down in these or other, more specifically administrative, details, for the Study Group have (if I may mix the metaphors a bit) the root of the matter by the tail. They have shown how, with reasonable fairness and not too great administrative cost, enough new money can be brought into local government to replace half or more of the present Government grants. And it will come from sources, especially the local income tax, which are likely to expand in step with the national income. Here is a really great and worth-while step towards local autonomy.

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Discretion is the better part of valour, and the Study Group have not let their imagination run away with them. As is only right in a committee which wants immediate action, they give no handle to those who think that nothing should ever be done for the first time. But an irresponsible reviewer need have no such inhibitions. Let me take away assumption that the general character of the fiscal system must remain as before. And let me draw together two ideas which have been poking above the ground in recent years, and may count a good deal more in future. First, there are two very different conceptions of the Welfare State. It may be an Executive State, whose test is its success in providing tax-financed services of its own. Or it may be an Educational State, which aims to help the people to provide and use services for themselves. Every State is partly one and partly the other. But the weight in this country ten or twenty years ago was very much on the first conception, whereas now it is shifting towards the second.

Secondly, a financial point. Inspired by some suggestions of Colin Clark's, I got out two or three years ago the following estimate. A man earning at that time £7 a week, having three children at school, an average health record, and living in a typical Council house, might have been getting about £5 to £6 a week in subsidies from the various social services, the great bulk of it in kind. At that time also, the scales of family allowance in operation in France were such that, if applied here, they would have given my £7 a week man an extra £6 a week in cash instead of, as the British family allowance then was, 16s. The whole of the subsidies he was receiving in kind could thus have been replaced with cash. A revised scheme of family allowances on that scale, financed with, say, a pay-roll tax, would have made it possible to demolish all but a fraction of the

fantastic scaffolding of purchase taxes, excise duties, subsidies and grants which now props up the structure of the social services and unreasonably interferes with the choice of cars, washing machines, schools and drinks.

In the industrial relations business, where I now am, concepts of training, responsibility, team work and co-operative group relations are gaining ground all the time at the expense of older ideas of hierarchy and authority. I may therefore have a professional bias. But I suspect that we shall all presently come round again to thinking it right, and profitable, to let people go to hell or heaven in their own way, as they or their own voluntary, co-operative groups may prefer. It is the Welfare State's business to see that transport in the chosen direction is available, that everyone can pay the fare, and that people know where the trains go, how to get on them, and the advantages of co-operative travel. In these respects the Educational State is very different from the laissez-faire State of the past. But it is also different from the Executive State in that the Educational State does not regard it as its business, except in an emergency, actually to load the people into the trucks and dispatch them to a State-chosen destination with a free Government warrant in their pockets.

Suppose we went to town on ideas like these, what would be the effect on local finance? Pretty dramatic, I suspect. Looking at the back of my last rate demand note, I see that 5s. 7d. of a rate of 14s. 4d. is accounted for by education, that is by the part of the cost of education not covered by specific grants. It would make quite a dent in the Cardiff City Council's financial problems if parents, while still under a statutory obligation to have their children educated, were put in a position to pay the fees themselves. There is also housing to consider, and some other less expensive services. "Fees, rents, recoupments, etc.," represented 19 per cent. of local revenue in 1953-54 where they were only 10 per cent. in 1913-14. Given the right national policy, a very great deal more could be made of them in the long

A final, solemn chought is that if the Study Group's proposals on income tax are adopted, and the chance is taken to reduce indirect taxation, the cost of living—or at least the cost of living index—will come down. The convention that

indirect taxes enter into the cost of living, but direct taxes do not, has had a long and useful history. But I doubt if even the most innocent is deceived today by an apparent fall in the cost of living achieved by removing a sum of money from prices in the shops and entering an exactly equal sum as a deduction on the payslip. To most of us, as we watch our standard of

living seep, nay flood, away down the Chancellor's drain, an operation of this sort is just plain irritating. The fact that the Study Group's proposals will be an operation of this very kind is one more proof that the current convention is now futile and out of touch with the facts of life. Like other veterans, it ought to be retired.

MICHAEL P. FOGARTY

Civil Service or Bureaucracy?

By E. N. GLADDEN. Staples Press, 1956. Pp. 224. 21s.

### The Civil Service in Britain and France

Edited by WILLIAM A. ROBSON. Hogarth Press, 1956. Pp. vii+191. 21s.

Dr. GLADDEN'S blunt and single-minded assessment of the Civil Service from within Professor Robson's interesting collection of essays each illustrates the difficulty of dealing satisfactorily with so large, complex and ever-changing a subject as modern bureaucracy. Dr. Gladden, who is a Senior Executive Officer in a regional office of one of the larger social service departments, writes with the authority of a civil servant of long standing on the growth of the Service, its methods of recruitment and staff management and on what he considers to be its inadequate arrangements for training and for selection for promotion. The picture he provides in his first 160 pages is objective and as up-to-date as one could reasonably wish, though it concentrates on what Dr. Gladden calls the office grades and places most of its emphasis on the Executive or middle grades of the Service. This part of the book should prove particularly useful to anyone who wishes to understand how the Whitley system has evolved or to grasp the relative importance of the rôles played in this peculiar apparatus of joint consultation by the Treasury, the

departments and the staff associations. The rest of the book is devoted to discussion and to a brief recapitulation, which the author has tried to bring up to date by including a summary of the recommendations of the Priestley Commission. His main conclusions are that the Service is faced with a more difficult task than ever before and that if it is to cope with it successfully it will have to look to its methods of recruitment, training and selection for promotion. He points out, correctly, that the talents of many

middle grade civil servants are running to waste and is inclined to blame the existence of a separate Administrative Class for this state of affairs, not only because its members stand in the way of the advancement of members of the Executive and other classes, but because the ideal of oligarchic leadership which they represent is inadequate to the present confused and complex situation. He asks, as everyone who looks carefully at our Civil Service appears to, for more and better training and for improved personnel management, and he also suggests that the Administrative and Executive classes should be run together, graduates being brought in, in future, at or about what is now the Higher Executive Officer level. Finally, he suggests that it is high time that another Royal Commission, with suitably wide terms of reference, and so equipped as to do a little research on its own account, was appointed to look at the structure of the Service. These suggestions are interesting, and what is also significant is the weariness, if not frustration, that peeps through the pages. One is conscious that Dr. Gladden has been for a long time a member of an organisation which-to reverse Lord Beveridge's dictum quoted at the front of the book-contrives all too often to make uncommon men do common things.

If the voice of Dr. Gladden is sometimes that of a drowned sailor, those of some of Professor Robson's contributors seem to one engaged in the hurly-burly of Whitehall almost incredibly distant and serene. Lord Attlee's quietly entertaining picture of a senior civil servant's relations with his Minister is drawn as if seen through

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the wrong end of a telescope, and his treatment of the subject of Ministerial responsibility is simple in the extreme. Everything the civil servant does, states Lord Attlee, " is the act of the Minister and it is the duty of the Minister to defend his servants and to take full responsibility." Sir Edward Bridges, who contributes a polished essay on the reforms of 1854 as seen in retrospect, is more forthcoming. "Nor would it have escaped the notice of the acute observer of public affairs," he says, discussing the snares which beset the civil servant of today, "that, where a civil servant fails to give a good account of himself in some matter which attracts public attention, the doctrine of ministerial responsibility does not shield him from a measure of public blame."

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Nine of the 14 essays collected in this volume were originally printed in the The Political special number which Quarterly devoted to the Civil Service in the autumn of 1954 to mark the centenary of the Trevelyan-Northcote reforms, and one or two of them have already been to some extent overtaken by events, but Professor Robson's essays on "Bureaucracy and Democracy" and on "Recent Trends in Public Administration" well worth re-reading, as are Sir Edward Bridges's brief but illuminating reflections on the present and future tasks of the Service with which he ends the essay

already mentioned. His conclusions, that "the task of civil servants today is not only changing somewhat in character, but is, on the whole, becoming more difficult," and that it is more than ever necessary " for the Civil Service to recruit the right type of men and women for the tasks which they have to carry out," echo those of Dr. Gladden, and, not only Professor Robson's essays, but a new one provided by Sir Thomas Padmore on Civil Service Establishments and the Treasury, also touch on the interesting question of how the Service selects and uses its manpower. Sir Thomas's careful picture of the relations between the Treasury and the departmental establishment officers is perhaps the most valuable of the new essays in Professor Robson's collection. But Mr. Creech Jones's warning of the strains that political advance in the colonial territories is throwing on the colonial service is most timely, and Professor André Bertrand's description of the new methods of recruiting and training higher civil servants in France neatly rounds off a volume which-if the quality of the contributions is a little unevendoes succeed in throwing a great deal of new light on certain aspects of our Civil Service, and, what is perhaps more important, in stimulating any tendency the reader may have to ask relevant and constructive questions about its future.

FRANK DUNNILL

### The Administration of Health Insurance in Canada By MALCOLM G. TAYLOR. Oxford University Press, 1956. Pp. xiv+270. 40s.

Now that we have had a few years' experience of the National Health Services in the United Kingdom, it is interesting to see how they manage these things abroad. Most European countries have schemes of social insurance, covering people who work for employers, and providing cash benefits when the insured person is unfit for work, and medical treatment when he or any member of his family needs it. These schemes are financed by contributions from employers and workers. Norway and Sweden have extended this compulsory health insurance to cover almost the whole population. Canada, like the United States, has no social insurance of this kind. Instead, it has a great variety of schemes of health insurance organised or sponsored by

Provincial Governments, municipalities, doctors, hospitals, the American Blue Cross Hospital Association, large employers, commercial insurance companies, etc. Saskatchewan and British Columbia have Government schemes covering the whole population of those provinces compulsorily. All the other schemes are voluntary. Some of them provide only treatment by doctors in their surgeries or at the patients' homes. Others, including the two compulsory Government schemes, provide only hospital treatment. few cover both kinds of treatment. Only the commercial insurance companies provide sickness benefit in cash for loss of working time.

Mr. Taylor's book gives a useful account of these schemes. There are chapters on legislation, enrolment, the choice of benefits to be provided, the fixing of premiums, the reimbursement of hospitals and doctors, the control of abuse, and all the other problems of administration. Mr. Taylor analyses each problem very thoroughly and supplies tabular statements and statistics. Some parts of the book, such as those dealing with the costing of hospital treatment and the pattern of organisation, will be difficult for the ordinary reader. But the rest of the book is quite readable, even for people who know nothing about health insurance. Some of the chapters will be valuable for those who are seriously interested in the administration of the National Health Services of this country or in the corresponding schemes of other countries.

European readers of Mr. Taylor's book will be interested to learn that Canadian health insurance is most successful where large groups of workers in the service of the same employer are insured together in the same scheme, and the employer pays part of the premium and collects the worker's share by making deductions from his wages, i.e., where it follows most closely the pattern of the classical European schemes of social insurance. Indeed, many of the Canadian schemes which began by selling insurance contracts to individuals now concentrate on group insurance. Even with group insurance, there is the problem of maintaining insurance cover when a worker becomes unemployed, or changes his job, or dies leaving a widow and children.

The Blue Cross performs a valuable social service by charging the same premiums to all groups of workers, regardless of their illness experience. But this gives the commercial insurance companies an opportunity to offer cheaper contracts to particularly healthy groups, e.g., an office group composed mainly of young unmarried women.

Many of the insurance organisations compete with one another in promising more and more generous benefits, and spend large sums of money on advertisements and circular letters. But, for the unmarried man who is not interested in his health and is not covered by a group scheme, health insurance has little attraction. If some energetic agent persuades him to join, he will probably not keep up his premiums, particularly when he hears stories of people who go into hospital, not because they really need any treatment,

but because they are determined to get value for their money. When he marries and wants protection for his wife and children, he will probably have to join at least two schemes. For certain kinds of treatment there is a waiting period, perhaps as long as two years, during which he cannot claim. If he needs such treatment, he must postpone it till the end of the waiting period or else pay for it himself. His premiums will generally total more than 100 dollars a year. If he or a member of his family becomes seriously ill with a chronic ailment, he may have his insurance cancelled on the ground that his claims have become too expensive. He may have substantial claims disallowed on the ground that they concern an ailment which was latent when he became insured. One man who thought he was fully covered against all risks had to pay a hospital bill for 600 dollars when his wife gave birth to triplets and each of them was under weight at birth.

But more than half the population of Canada are covered by one or more of these schemes, and they must be convinced that this protection is worth while.

Where the health insurance organisation is not sponsored by doctors or hospitals, it has to provide benefits through the agency of people over whom it has no control. Instead of trying to negotiate a scale of charges, it accepts whatever scale is fixed by the doctors or hospitals. Probably this is wiser than the practice of those European social insurance institutes which persuade doctors' associations to agree scales of charges and then leave their members to bear the loss when a doctor overcharges. The Canadians have noticed that the fee for a visit to the doctor's surgery, which used to cover examination, diagnosis, prescription and advice, has now become like a cover charge at a night club. It pays for the visit, but there is an extra charge for each service. Generally, the doctors seem to have resisted the temptation to give too many services, and to have co-operated loyally with the insurance organisations.

Mr. Taylor is a native of Alberta, a Ph.D. of the University of California, and a lecturer at the University of Toronto. He does not tell us why Canada, which took full account of United Kingdom experience before formulating its schemes of unemployment insurance and old age pensions, has shown so little interest in our National Health Services, or whether

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there is any likelihood that the Federal Government or the Provincial Governments may establish more comprehensive schemes of health insurance. No doubt these questions are outside the scope of his book. He is more interested in administration than in policy. But, incidentally, he does tell us a great deal which throws light on questions of policy,

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and will be valuable to those who are responsible for formulating policies in countries which have not yet established any kind of health insurance or health service. His book is bound to have an important influence on all future developments of health insurance in Canada.

A. PATTERSON

### British Government Inspection

By J. S. HARRIS. Stevens, 1956. Pp. 196. 25s.

Considering the potentialities of the subject and how little has been written about it, this is a disappointing book. There is a useful collection of material about the H.M.Is. for education, police, etc., not readily available elsewhere and a small amount of history. But the treatment is flat and uninspired and this American author is never at home with his subject. In part this is because he approaches the H.M.I. with the starry-eyed wonder usually reserved for the London policeman. In the main, however, it is because he has preferred to attempt to cover a lot of ground superficially rather than to enquire into any one part thoroughly. He also seems to labour

under the delusion that Local Authorities made no contribution to the progress of the public services (they occupy but a shadowy place in his thoughts). Because there has been great progress most of it must be due to H.M.Is. of various kinds with perhaps a sop of credit for those who sit in Whitehall. It is all harmless enough, but it is hardly the way to conduct research into the administrative process, particularly by a Professor from a country which is doing pioneer work in the behavioural sciences, in Case Studies, and in other ways of discovering and describing how the wheels go round.

D. N. CHESTER

### The Industrial Structure of American Cities

By Gunnar Alexandersson. George Allen and Unwin, 1956. Pp. 134. 40s.

"THE scientific contribution of the study," says the author, "lies in the methods of arranging and presenting the statistics." It is fair comment. Using the figures of industrial employment in the 1950 census, he has produced a map for each of its 36 industrial categories: the maps are accompanied by text presenting the author's interpretations, filled out by commentary culled from existing literature.

These maps are more precise, complete, and recent than those in the economic geography text-books: but, naturally, they add little to the ordinary reader's general impressions. The usefulness is in having them in accessible and comparable form. The more important contribution is the analysis of the industrial structure of individual cities: using William-Olsson's method, Alexandersson

distinguishes on a quantitative basis between industries which in a particular town are "city-forming," and those which are "city-serving" (i.e., care and maintenance) industries. For each industry he calculates a constant called k, which is roughly the percentage of people needed in a town just to serve it with those goods or services. An industry employing k plus 5-10 per cent. of the gainfully occupied in a town is thus a city-forming industry: towns with k plus 20 or more per cent. in a single industry are very one-sided. Detroit is a one-sided car-making town: Washington, D.C., has k plus 29.7 per cent. in the public administration "industry." The chief city-forming industries for all towns over 10,000 population are given in an appendix.

This is a useful tool, and one more successful than other attempts to make the distinction. It allows statistical proof of circumstantial observations, such as that there is an inverse correlation between importance in manufacturing and importance in retail trade. Alexandersson has pumped his figures dry: thus he shows that cross-roads towns in farm areas have disproportionately large numbers of repairmen, and that southern cities usually have five to ten times as many people employed in private households as cities of the same size in New England.

The book is certainly an antidote to the "configuration of the land surface" approach which is the usual interest of approach which is the usual interest of economic geographers; the author means it to be a new approach to industrial location. But in fact he attempts only the easier explanations of location. Thus there is much on Detroit and the car industry, but nothing to explain the predominance of Hartford, Conn., in insurance. Why women's fashions should be made in New York and Los Angeles is easy to explain; but he notes without comment the surprising importance of Dallas, Tex., in this field—result of the enterprise of a single store, Neiman-Marcus.

The book is well produced, and blemishes are few (p. 71, for fig. 14 read fig. 13; p. 117, for fig. 39 read fig. 40). But in a compilation whose main use must be for reference, the absence of an index is a serious fault. Much of the text, moreover, is written in gobbledygook. Untangle the metaphors in this: "The advantages of concentration are, however, counterbalanced by the resistance offered the raw materials and the final product by the distance factor." Alexandersson has not been well served by his advisers on English. The following is unintelligible even in context: "The case of

retail trade raises the question if it would not have been motivated with different k-values for different regions." Frequently the expected is presented as a result of research: "Wine production is rather unimportant in the United States. It is highly localised in regions adjacent to the vineyards."

Nevertheless, this is a highly useful thing to have done, monumental in its A similar compilation for Great Britain (better still, for Western Europe) might be fruitful. The coming Common Market ought, if the logic is correct, to see some industries disappear from the British map, and others in growing bigger concentrate into Alexandersson's k plus 20 per cent. towns. Now oneindustry towns have taken hard knocks in the past in Britain, and planners who follow Eva Taylor will presumably view such a development with concern. it is true that Europe has one or two such centres of each industry in each country, compared with the United States' one or two for a market of comparable size.

A study like this has other uses. "the problem is to attract new industries to a city," Alexandersson points out, "it should be valuable to know how the industries in question are associated with other industries in cities of different sizes, functions, and geographic locations." "When a population prognosis is made for a city, attention should be concentrated on the city-forming industries"; easy in a one-sided town, but less easy in the normal town. Planning officers here would benefit from having a study like this to work from. Perhaps the Ministry, who produced the urban hinterlands map, might turn their attention to

A. DUNSIRE

### Health in Industry: Sickness Absence Statistics

Butterworth Medical Publications for London Transport Executive, 1956. Pp. 177. 35s.

MANY personnel officers have felt for some time the absence of detailed statistical information that would enable them to compare the incidence of sickness in their organisation with that occurring in other establishments. If for no other reason, therefore, the work done by the London Transport Executive to make this volume possible will be welcomed, especially so since the information is based on the sick-

ness absence incurred by employees engaged in a wide range of occupations. Furthermore, these statistics, a by-product of office mechanisation, are based on figures analysed over three-year periods. Actuaries and statisticians will express, elsewhere, their technical views on this work; the administrator will be seeking figures or trends to help him to say whether the incidence of sickness is high in his

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The statistical information and charts are preceded by a useful background chapter written by F. H. Spratling, the Staff Administration Officer of London Transport Executive, who gives definitions where necessary and describes the method of compilation and the diagnosis codes used.

Brief descriptive notes also introduce the detailed charts prepared for each main category of employees and give essential information about the working conditions and sick pay regulations applying respectively to the omnibus operational staff, to London Transport railway staff, to workshop personnel and also to the clerical and technical staff. This fourth and final category were at the time of publication the only employees to receive sick pay from the Executive and separate figures have been compiled for men, married women and single women.

By main diseases, age groups and length of absence the various figures are charted and so can be compared with figures prepared on similar bases by other organisations. Comparisons will not be easy for those personnel departments less adequately served with statistics and but few organisations will have prepared similar charts or have analysed their figures on this subject in such detail. Certain general tendencies can be seen, e.g., the higher number of single-day absences of clerical staff who receive pay for such absences. With some dismay one notes the mountainous rise in the graph that illustrates the incidence of bronchitis in men employed on outside work who are over the age of 45. The absence from work of married women is high when compared with that of single women and the statistics suggest an improvement in health after women officers pass their middle twenties. No conclusions are drawnthey would be misleading without more information compiled on a similar basis by other organisations. Nevertheless, the book is a useful contribution to a relatively unexplored phase of personnel management which has recently gained in importance. It is to be hoped that more public authorities will now follow the example of London Transport.

JOHN SARGENT

### BOOK NOTES

Governments of Greater European Powers

By Professor Herman Finer. Henry Holt (New York), 1956. Pp. 931.

This text book, designed primarily for the American university student, deals in turn with the constitutions, politics and government of Great Britain, France, Germany and the Soviet Union. It is better than most attempts of this kind for Professor Finer has great knowledge and long teaching experience. The student is given a favourable picture of British government and Civil Service, though the Oxford and Cambridge "bias" of the Administrative Class is given considerable space. Inevitably in a book overflowing with facts there are many errors of detail and subtleties disappear under the broad brush.

Administrative Science Quarterly

Published by the Graduate School of Business and Public Administration, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. \$7.50 per annum.

THE September and December, 1956, issues of this recently launched American quarterly are now available. They continue the strong emphasis on the sociological approach to the study of administrative situations. Good examples are the article in the September issue on "Small Groups and Administrative Organisations" by Professors Demerat and Thibaut, and in the December issue on "Social Factors Related to Performance in a Research Organisation" by Mr. D. C. Pelz. The latter issue (the third) is the best yet, probably because it deals more with actual problems than with words about them.

### Research Frontiers in Politics and Government

By Stephen K. Bailey and others. Brookings Institution, 1955. Pp. 240. \$2.75.

In these stimulating lectures eight leading American experts deal with the present position of the study in their particular fields. In his surveys of Recent Advances in Organisation Theory, Professor Herbert Simon stresses two comparatively recent developments in American writing—the reassociation of administration with policy and the new emphasis on human relations. On the latter he warns against the pendulum swinging too far for "Behavior in organization is neither completely emotive nor completely aimless . . . most . . . is intendedly rational behavior."

### Political Science in the United States of America

By DWIGHT WALDO. U.N.E.S.C.O., 1956. Pp. 84. N.P.

WRITING primarily for the non-American student, Professor Waldo deals first with contemporary trends in American political science writings, including the changing interest in particular fields and topics, and then surveys each branch in turn. Obviously in the short space available he can only touch on the most significant features and then often but briefly. He does this extremely competently, however, and all students will be grateful to him (and to U.N.E.S.C.O.) for such a helpful guide to the literature and ideas of the country which outstrips the rest of the world in this field.

### Interdepartmental Committee on Social and Economic Research

Third Report. H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 33, 2s, 6d.

UNDER the Chairmanship of the Registrar General, this Committee of academics and civil servants continues to perform a useful, if necessarily limited, function. Its primary activities have been to survey the research material available in governments and to recommend improvements in collection and analysis of statistics of value to the research worker. Of particular interest to readers of this Journal will be the survey of British local government statistics which the Committee undertook.

This led to the publication of a Guide in the series of Guides to Official Sources. The Committee was impressed by the useful contribution of the non-governmental publications in this field, particularly those prepared by the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and the Society of County Accountants, and makes suggestions about the relations that should exist between these and those published by the Departments.

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### Public Personnel Administration

By O. G. STAHL. Harper and Bros. (New York), 1956. Pp. 628. \$5.00.

THIS is the Fourth Edition of a well-known text book originally written by Professors Mosher and Kingsley. It still remains, however, a purely American book, confined to American ways of thought and practices. Almost the only reference to the British Civil Service in the bibliography is the Whitley Report of 1920 on the Cost of Living. Nevertheless it is not without interest and value to those concerned with establishment work in Britain and other countries. It is unfortunate that no similar book exists for British theory and practice.

### Problems of Government in the State of Israel

By EDWIN SAMUEL. Rubin Mass (Jerusalem), 1956. Pp. 107. N.P.

READERS of this journal will be familiar with Mr. Samuel's recent survey of the developments and problems of the Israeli Civil Service. In his latest little book he makes the same kind of useful survey of other aspects of the politics and administration of this virile new State.

### A Survey of Structural Changes in the Western Australian Economy

By C. A. VARGOVIC. University of Western Australia Press (Nedlands), 1956. Pp. vii+109. 8s. 6d.

Through an interpretation of statistical material, the author has traced the shifts which have occurred since 1938-39 in the various branches of the economy of Western Australia. He indicates to what extent trends in the State parallel those found on a Commonwealth-wide scale.

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### A Parliamentary Dictionary

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By L. A. ABRAHAM and S. C. HAWTREY. Butterworth, 1956. Pp. viii+224. 21s. (postage 1s. 6d. extra).

In this book are defined and explained in alphabetical order the terms which are commonly used in the Houses of Parliament. Both the authors are senior officials of the House of Commons, and their compilation should prove of great value to all who are interested in Parliamentary institutions and procedure.

### How to Visit the British Parliament By Roy PRYCE. Hansard Society, 1956. Pp. 12. 1s.

This is a brief visitor's guide to the Palace of Westminster.

### Political Quarterly (July-September, 1956)

Turnstile Press. Pp. 128. 7s. 6d.

This special issue considers industrial relations and trade unions as seen from the point of view of employers and management. It is complementary to the January-March, 1956, issue which viewed these questions from the standpoint of the trade unions and their members.

### Technical Co-operation in Latin America

National Planning Association (Washington), 1956. Pp. xii+192. \$2.50.

A SPECIAL policy committee on Technical Co-operation produced this report, which also contains recommendations for the future. It is of particular interest because it reflects the experience of a large number of United States agencies which are engaged in providing assistance to Latin American republics. Much valuable material is also contained in statistical appendices.

### Assistance to the Needy in Less-Developed Areas

United Nations, H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 227. 11s.

This is a comparative survey of the methods followed by various Middle Eastern, Far Eastern and Latin American countries in administering assistance. Accounting and Book-Keeping Machines (Keyboard-Operated). (Pp. 48. 4s. 6d.)

Visible Record and Reference Equipment. (Pp. 39. 4s. 6d.)

Adding and Calculating Machines— Part I. (Pp. 32. 4s. 6d.)

Adding and Calculating Machines— Part II. (Pp. 27. 4s. 6d.)

Telegraphy in Business. (Pp. 30. 4s. 6d.)

Wood Office Furniture (Pp. 36. 4s. 6d.)

Charts and Planboards for Visual Control Systems. (Pp. 36. 4s. 6d.)

Reproduction Processes—Part II. (Pp. 34. 4s. 6d.)

Intercommunication Equipment (Telephonic). (Pp. 36. 4s. 6d.)

MACDONALD AND EVANS LTD. have now produced these nine further contributions to the series on modern office equipment which they are publishing for the Office Appliance and Business Equipment Trades Association.

### Massachusetts State Government

Harvard University Press, Oxford University Press, 1956. Pp. xv+399. 48s.

THIS citizen's handbook, which was prepared by the League of Women Voters of Massachusetts, provides a full guide to the government of that State and to the manner in which its legislative, executive, judicial and electoral institutions have evolved to meet the changing needs of modern civilisation.

### British Journal of Administrative Law (July, 1956)

Shaw and Sons, Jordan and Sons-Pp. 142+vii. 45s. per annum.

THE main contributions to this issue are by Professor Harold V. Boisvert on "Control by Central Government in the United States and Great Britain," by M. Schindler on "Judicial Review of Administrative Acts in Germany," and by Professor F. Garrido Falla on "Civil Liability of the Administration in Spain."

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Economic Developments in the Middle East, 1954-1955

United Nations, H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 151. 11s.

Economic Developments in Africa, 1954-55

United Nations, H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 100. 7s.

THESE two supplements to the United Nations annual World Economic Survey for 1955 give a full picture of economic trends in the regions concerned.

International Tax Agreements (Vol. VI)

United Nations, H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. vi+262. 14s.

THIS volume contains the texts of international tax agreements concluded between June, 1953, and November, 1955.

O.E.E.C. at Work for Europe (Third Edition)

O.E.E.C. Information Division and H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 107.

In this booklet twelve senior officials of the Organisation give brief accounts of what O.E.E.C. has accomplished.

Nuffield Foundation—Eleventh Report Pp. 160.

THE report of the Nuffield Foundation for the year ended 31st March, 1956, records the grants made to assist research in science, medicine, social research and experiment, education, and the care of old people.

Clean Air

Leeds Incorporated Chamber of Commerce, 1956. Pp. 144. 5s. (postage 4d. extra).

This survey of the Clean Air Act, 1956, appeared as a supplement to *The Leeds Journal*. It gives a full account of the

provisions of the statute, and also indicates how its main requirements can be met.

Training for Supervisors

H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 28. Obtainable free from headquarters and local offices of Ministry of Labour and National Service.

THIS booklet contains an imaginary conversation in which a training officer, a general manager, a director, a superintendent and a foreman exchange their views on the 1954 Report of the Committee of Inquiry on the Training of Supervisors.

The Growth of Responsible Government from James I to Victoria

By A. H. Dodd. Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1956. Pp. xv+215. 23s, The author has sought to provide both the student of history and the general reader with an account of how British representative institutions first took shape, from the early seventeenth to the early nineteenth century.

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Tomorrow's Landscape

By SYLVIA CROWE. Architectural Press, 1956. Pp. 207. 21s.

In this book a landscape architect shows, with the aid of numerous photographs, the impact of modern industrial and residential development on rural and urban landscapes, and illustrates the ways by which the most evil effects can be averted or mitigated.

Rates and Rateable Values in England and Wales, 1955-56

H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 60. 3s.

This is a further edition of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government's annual return. A supplement (pp. 55, 3s.) shows the rateable values and numbers of hereditaments in the new valuation lists which came into force on 1st April, 1956.

### RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

The following official publications issued by H.M.S.O. are of particular interest to those engaged in, or studying, public administration. The documents are available in the Library of the Institute.

### Administrative Tribunals and Enquiries, Committee on

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Memoranda submitted by government departments. Vol. VI. pp. iv, 123. 1956. 58.

Charity Commission, Board of Control, Development Commission, Foreign Office, Ministry of Fuel and Power, Home Office, H.M. Land Registry, Office of the Lord President of the Council, Registry of Friendly Societies, Tithe Redemption Commission, Board of Trade, H.M. Treasury, War Damage Commission and Central Land Board.

### CENTRAL ELECTRICITY AUTHORITY

Eighth report and accounts, 1955-56. H.C. 367. pp. viii, 244. 8 illus., folding tabs. 1956, 10s. 6d.

### CENTRAL STATISTICAL OFFICE

Annual abstract of statistics. No. 93. 1956. pp. xi, 314. 21s.

Economic trends. Nos. 34-36. August to October, 1956. 2s. each number.

Monthly digest of statistics. Nos. 128-130. August to October, 1956. 4s. 6d. each number.

CENTRAL YOUTH EMPLOYMENT EXECUTIVE Choice of Careers. New Series, No. 68. Her Majesty's Forces, Commissioned Service. pp. 48. 1956. 1s. 6d.

Choice of Careers. New Series, No. 76. The Prison Service. pp. 32. 1956. 9d.

#### CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Civil Service posts for graduates. pp. iv, 78. Third edition. 1956. 2s. 6d.

Report for the period 1st April, 1955, to 31st March, 1956. pp. 39. 1956. 2s. 3d.

#### COLONIAL OFFICE

Report by H.M. Government . . . to the

General Assembly of the United Nations on the Cameroons under U.K. administration for the year 1955. pp. x, 318. 12 illus., folding map, tabs. Colonial No. 325. 1956. 16s.

Report by H.M. Government . . . to the General Assembly of the United Nations on Togoland under U.K. administration for the year 1955. pp. xi, 198. 24 illus., map, tabs. Colonial No. 323. 1956. 10s. 6d.

Report by H.M. Government . . . to the General Assembly of the United Nations on the Trust Territory of Targanyika under U.K. administration for the year 1955. pp. x, 313. 28 illus., maps, tabs. Colonial No. 324. 1956. 12s. 6d.

### COMMONWEALTH RELATIONS OFFICE

The Colombo Plan technical co-operation scheme. Report for 1955-56 by the Council for Technical Co-operation in South and South-East Asia. pp. 48. 1956. 2s.

### CORONA

September to October, 1956. 1s. 6d. monthly.

COUNCIL OF INDUSTRIAL DESIGN

Eleventh annual report, 1955-56. pp. 39. Illus. 1s. 6d.

#### DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR SCOTLAND

Scottish Housing Handbook No. 3. House design. pp. 39. Revised edition. 1956. 4s. 6d.

DIGEST OF COLONIAL STATISTICS No. 28. September-October, 1956. 6s.

DIGEST OF SCOTTISH STATISTICS No. 8. October, 1956. 4s.

#### DIGEST OF WELSH STATISTICS

No. 3. 1956. pp. iv, 69. 6s. Annual publication.

#### EDUCATION, MINISTRY OF

Circulars and administrative memoranda issued during the period 1st April, 1955,

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

to 31st March, 1956. Paging irregular. 1956. 13s. 6d.

Pamphlet No. 30. Education of the handicapped pupil, 1945-55. pp. v, 26. 1956. 2s.

Report of the Burnham Committee on scales of salaries for teachers in establishments for further education maintained by local education authorities in England and Wales, 1956. pp. viii, 51. 1956. 3s.

The recommendations include those for an equal pay increment, additional payment for teachers in the London area, and the setting up of a Joint Committee of Reference to consider the Report's recommendations.

Report of the consultative committee on the primary school (Chairman: Sir W. H. Hadow, C.B.E.), 28th November, 1930. 1931. This famous report has now been reprinted. 5s. 6d.

Report of the Committee on scales of salaries for the teaching staff of farm institutes and for teachers of agricultural (including horticultural) subjects on the staff of local education authorities in England and Wales, 1956. pp. v, 37. 1956. 2s. 6d.

Report of the Committee on scales of salaries for the teaching staff of training colleges in England and Wales, 1956. pp. iv, 17. 1956. 1s. 6d.

Three-year training for teachers. Fifth report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers. pp. vi, 12. 1956. 1s. 3d.

### FOREIGN OFFICE

Egypt No. 1 (1956). The Suez Canal Conference (selected documents). London, 2nd-24th August, 1956. Cmd. 9853. pp. 18. 1s.

Egypt No. 2 (1956). Exchange of correspondence between the Suez Committee and the President of the Republic of Egypt regarding the future operation of the Suez Canal. Cairo, 3rd-9th September, 1956. Cmd. 9856. pp. 15. 9d.

Sudan No. 2 (1956). Report on the administration of the Sudan for the year 1951-52. Cmd. 9841. pp. 186. Folding tab. 1956. 6s.

FUEL AND POWER, MINISTRY OF Gas. Report of the Minister of Fuel and Power for the year ended 31st March, 1956. H.C. 394. pp. 11. 1956. 8d. Hou

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### GAS COUNCIL

Seventh report and accounts, 1955-56. H.C. 393. pp. x, 189. 1956. 7s.

### GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE

The Registrar-General's statistical review of England and Wales for the year 1953. Text volume. pp. xv, 249. 1956. 9s.

### HEALTH, MINISTRY OF

Report for the year ended 31st December, 1955. Part 1—1. The National Health Service (including a chapter on international health); 2. Welfare, food and drugs, civil defence. Cmd. 9857. pp. xviii, 254. 1956. 9s.

Report on the working party on hospital costing. pp. 52. 1955. Reprinted 1956. 2s. 6d.

Report of the working party set up to devise a system of costing the various departments and services of a hospital.

HEALTH, MINISTRY OF: DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR SCOTLAND

Report of the Committee on recruitment to the dental profession. Cmd. 9861. pp. 61. 1956. 3s.

### HOME OFFICE

Children in the care of Local Authorities in England and Wales at March, 1956. Particulars of the number of children in care under the Children Act, 1948, the manner of their accommodation, and the estimated costs of maintenance. Cmd. 9881. pp. 7. 1956. 6d.

Criminal statistics, England and Wales, 1955. Cmd. 9884. pp. xlviii, 92. 1956. 7s.

### House of Commons

Parliamentary papers (House of Commons and Command): sessional index for session 1954-55. H.C. 144. pp. 85. 1956. 4s.

### House of Commons Library

Document No. 2. A bibliography of Parliamentary debates of Great Britain. pp. 62. 1956. 5s.

### RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

HOUSING AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT, MINISTRY OF

Report for the year 1955. Cmd. 9876. pp. xii, 166. 1956. 6s.

Housing return for England and Wales. 30th September, 1956. Appendix. Cmd. 9885. pp. ii, 78. 1956. 3s.

Housing summary, 31st August, 1956. Cmd. 9869. pp. 2. 1956. 3d.

Local government financial statistics, England and Wales, 1954-55. pp. 16. 1956. 1s.

Model by-laws. Series I. The removal of house refuse and the cleansing of earth closets, privies, ashpits and cesspools. pp. 3. 1956. 4d.

INDEPENDENT TELEVISION AUTHORITY
Annual report and accounts, 1955-56.
H.C. 362. pp. iv, 40. 1956. 2s. 9d.

IRON AND STEEL BOARD Annual report for the year 1955. H.C. 350. pp. iv, 38. 2s. 3d.

JOURNAL OF AFRICAN ADMINISTRATION October, 1956. 2s. 6d.

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Catering Wages Commission. Twelfth annual report, 1955. H.C. 409. p.1. 1956. 3d.

International Labour Conference. Proposed action by H.M. Government in the U.K. and Northern Ireland on a recommendation adopted at the 37th session, 1954. Cmnd. 1. pp. 3. 1956. 4d.

The recommendation (No. 98) concerns holidays with pay.

Method of constructing and calculating index of retail prices. pp. 40. 1956. 1s. 9d.

A useful and comprehensive guide to the new index which replaced the interim index as from January, 1956. The method described is based on recommendations of the Cost of Living Advisory Committee and of a smaller Technical Committee, both appointed by the Ministry of Labour.

Report of the Committee of Inquiry on the Rehabilitation, Training and Resettlement of Disabled Persons. Cmd. 9883. pp. v, 126. 1956. 5s. 6d. Staffing and organisation of factory inspectorate. Cmd. 9879. pp. 47. 1956. 2s.

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Seventh report, 1956. H.C. 410. pp. iv, 18. 1956. 1s. 3d.

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Sixth report of the Law Society of Scotland on the Legal Aid Scheme, 1955-56. pp. 24. 1956. 1s. 9d.

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Annual report of the General Board of Control for mental diseases for Scotland for the year 1955. Cmd. 9807. pp. 20. 1956.

### SELECT COMMITTEE ON ESTIMATES, SESSION 1955-56

Seventh report. Naval research and development. H.C. 345. pp. xxx, 271. 1956. 13s, 6d.

The Committee recommends that the possibility of merging naval research and development establishments with similar establishments working for other Government departments be considered. Final decision on which establishments are to be merged rests with the Ministry of Defence.

### SELECT COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATIONS AND DEBATES REPORTS

Reports, together with the proceedings of the Committee, minutes of evidence taken on the 23rd day of November last and an appendix. H.C. 420. pp. viii, 6. 1956. 1s. 6d.

Report of the Select Committee appointed to assist the Speaker with arrangements for the reporting and publishing of debates and with form and distribution of Notice Papers and to inquire into expenditure and printing for House and public services.

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Account of the Transport Fund for the year ended 31st December, 1955. (In continuation of House of Commons Paper No. 46 of 1955-56.) H.C. 360. pp. 3. 1956. 4d.

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British Transport Commission. Proposals for the railways. Cmd. 9880. pp. 43. 1956. 1s. 9d.

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United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1946 to 1956. Cmd. 9871. pp. 55. 2s. 3d. Report of the Committee on cheque endorsement. Cmnd. 3. pp. iv, 27. 1956. ls. 3d.

Committee appointed to consider when and to what extent need for endorsement of cheques and "similar instruments received for collection by a bank" might be reduced.

Government information services: statement showing estimated expenditure, 1956-57. Cmd. 9868. pp. 4. 1956. 4d.

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